

Issues



in Labor Statistics

U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics

Women's Labor Force Growth Appears Stalled

Economy and Increasing Births
Factors in Slowdown

For the past 25 years, the proportion of women who have been working or looking for work has been on the rise in the United States. Today, nearly three-fifths of all women 16 years old and over are working or are looking for work (i.e., in the labor force); 25 years ago just 40 percent of American women had a job or were looking for one.

Between 1990 and 1991, however, this trend was suddenly interrupted. In fact, over this period the proportion of women in the labor force declined from 57.5 to 57.3 percent. Why did this happen? Was it because of the recession that began in mid-1990? Is age a factor? How about child bearing and rearing? Is it a permanent or temporary phenomenon? While the answers to these questions are not always obvious, here's what the statistics show.

Recent developments

By the first half of 1990, the proportion of women who were working or looking for work had grown to 57.6 percent. This figure started to fall in mid-summer, when the recession began to take hold. By the year's end, the proportion of women in the labor force was 57.2 percent.

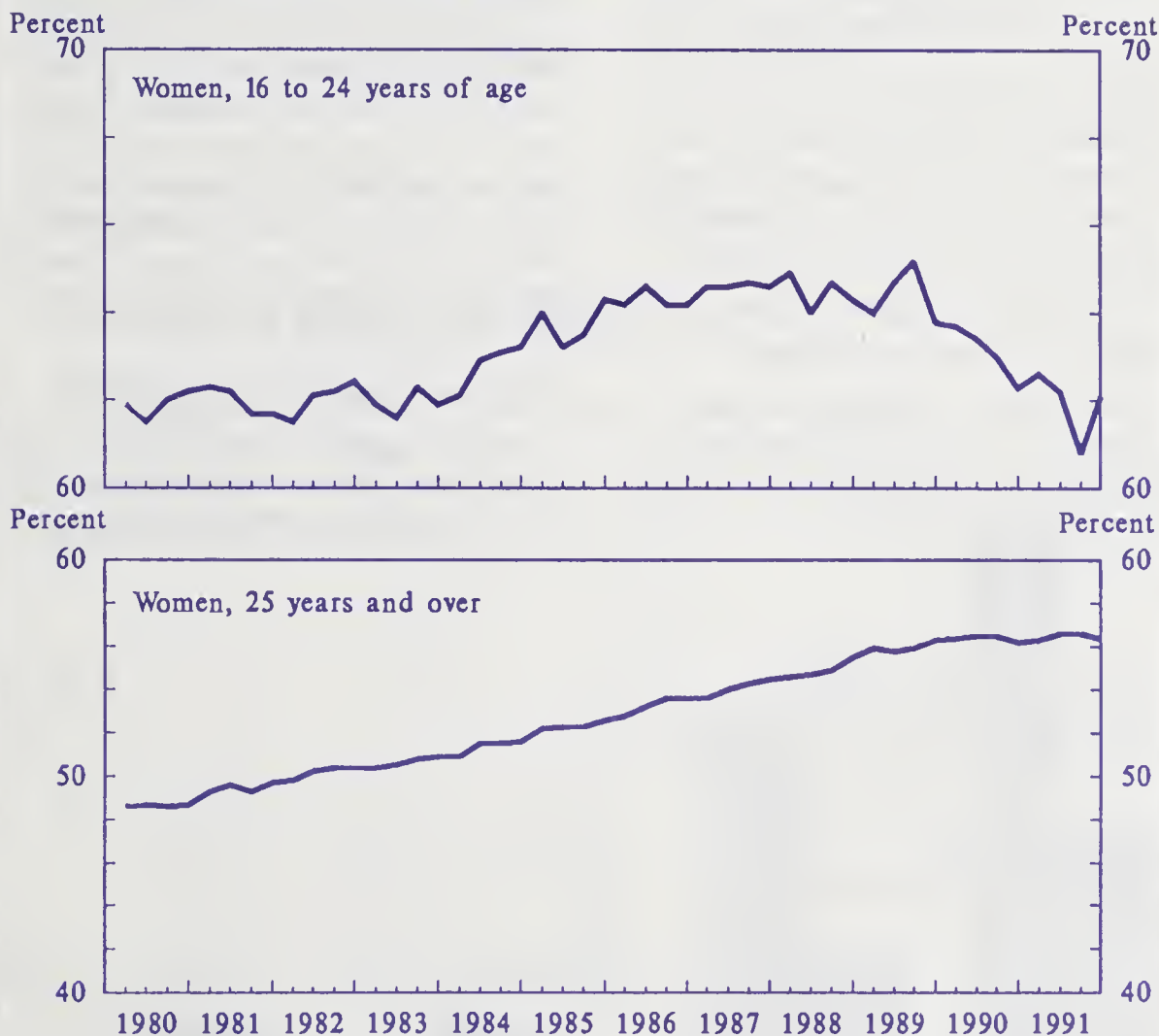
Contrary to the well-established pattern of years past, the proportion of women in the labor force did not advance in 1991. Thus, the average labor force participation rate of women for 1991 was somewhat below that of 1990. What makes the small 1990-91

decline significant is that it breaks a pattern of substantial *year-to-year increases* that had been common since 1965. Clearly, the rising trend of the past two and a half decades in the proportion of women who were work-

ing or looking for work had been interrupted.

There are a couple of opposing labor force trends that are significant in understanding this interruption. On the one hand, the proportion of young

Women's labor force participation rates, seasonally adjusted quarterly averages, 1980-91



women 16 to 24 years old, working or looking for work has fallen since 1987, when 65 percent of them were in the labor force. By the end of 1991, 62 percent of these young women were in the labor force.

In contrast, the proportion of women 25 and over participating in the labor force has increased from 48.7 percent in 1980 to 56.4 percent in 1990. As the recession took hold in the last half of 1990, however, the proportion of these women in the labor force dipped. While this decline appears to be short-lived, the rapid increases of the 1980's have been interrupted.

Gains are slowing

While increases in the proportion of women 25 years old and over who were working or looking for work in the 1970's and 1980's were fairly consistent, the pattern of increase differed by age. As shown below, the gains in the proportion of women 25 to 39 years old got progressively smaller over the period.

Age	Percent of women in the labor force				
	1970	1975	1980	1985	1991
25 to 29	45.2	57.3	66.7	71.4	73.5
30 to 34	44.7	51.9	64.1	70.3	73.1
35 to 39	49.2	55.0	64.9	71.7	75.7
Percentage-point gains					
	1970-75	1975-80	1980-85	1985-91	
25 to 29	12.1	9.4	4.7	2.1	
30 to 34	7.2	12.2	6.2	2.8	
35 to 39	5.8	9.9	6.8	4.0	

On the other hand, women who were age 40 and over continued to make strong labor force gains during the 1980's.

What has been happening?

The factors contributing to the interruption in the long-term rise in women's labor force participation are not easy to determine.

The recession is an obvious contributor. As job prospects dim, as they have since mid-1990, it might be expected that many women would choose to delay their job search until the economy improves and the chances of getting a job are better. However, similar interruptions *did not occur* during most previous recessions. Thus, some other factors also may have been at work.

More women are having babies. After remaining steady for many years, the number of births jumped from 3.8 million in 1987 to an estimated 4.2 million in 1990—the highest since the end of the baby-boom years following World War II. Naturally, many of the new mothers who might otherwise have been working or looking for work chose to stay home, at least temporarily, to care for their new children. And, it has been among women under 30 years old that the slowing in the proportion of those who are working or looking for work was most evident. However, a growing share of all new births are occurring among women in their 30's, thus affecting the labor market activity of these women to a greater extent than in the past.

Other factors. Over the past couple of years, there also has been a dip in the proportion of young men—16 to 24 years old—especially teenagers, who are working or looking for work. The reasons for this dip, which started before the onset of the current recession, are not obvious. However, the same socioeconomic factors may have also affected young women.

What will the future bring?

Will the growth in the proportion of women who are working or looking for work pick up again? Probably, but the

timing and rate of increase remain uncertain. Projections by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that this growth is expected to be much slower in the 1990's than during the past 25 years. Nevertheless, there are a number of unknowns—including future birth patterns, the strength of the economy, and unexpected changes in the proportion of different groups of women who are working or looking for work—that can have a substantial impact on the trend.

For more information on women's labor force attachment, contact:

Howard V. Hayghe, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 441 G Street, NW, Washington, DC 20212 telephone (202) 523-1371.

For information on Issues in Labor Statistics contact:

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This is the first in a series of BLS occasional reports that present information of current interest to policy makers and the general public. These reports may include information on employment and unemployment, producer and consumer prices, collective bargaining and wages, productivity, employment projections, and other subjects of general interest.

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Parental Leave Benefits Provided by Employers

On February 5, 1993, President Clinton signed into law the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993. This law requires many employers to provide workers with up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave for the birth or adoption of a child; illness of a spouse, child, or parent; or employee illness. (See back for more details of the law.) The Bureau of Labor Statistics has collected data for the last several years on the extent and details of employer-provided parental leave benefits.

What is parental leave?

BLS data on parental leave includes time off from work, either paid or unpaid, for an employee to care for and nurture a newborn or newly adopted child. In general, the employee is guaranteed the same or a comparable job upon return to work. Employer-provided benefits, such as health care, may be continued during the leave period, although the employee may be required to pay the full premium for such coverage.

Disabilities related to pregnancy and childbirth, however, are not included in the BLS definition of parental leave. The Federal Pregnancy Discrimination Act requires pregnancy disabilities to be treated the same as any other disability.

A female employee can use short-term disability benefits, such as sick leave and sickness and accident insurance, to provide income protection while unable to work during pregnancy and after childbirth.

Extent and duration of parental leave

Unpaid maternity leave is available to

about one-third of full- and part-time employees in private industry and State and local governments (see chart). Full-time State and local government employees are the most likely to have such coverage; part-time workers in small private establishments are the least likely. Paid parental leave is rarely available to any workers.

Among full-time employees covered by unpaid parental leave, the average duration of benefits varies widely. State and local government employees, on average, are eligible for 1 year of parental leave. Among private sector employees, those in larger establishments are eligible for about 6 months of leave; those in smaller establishments average about 3 months.

What the future will bring

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is ex-

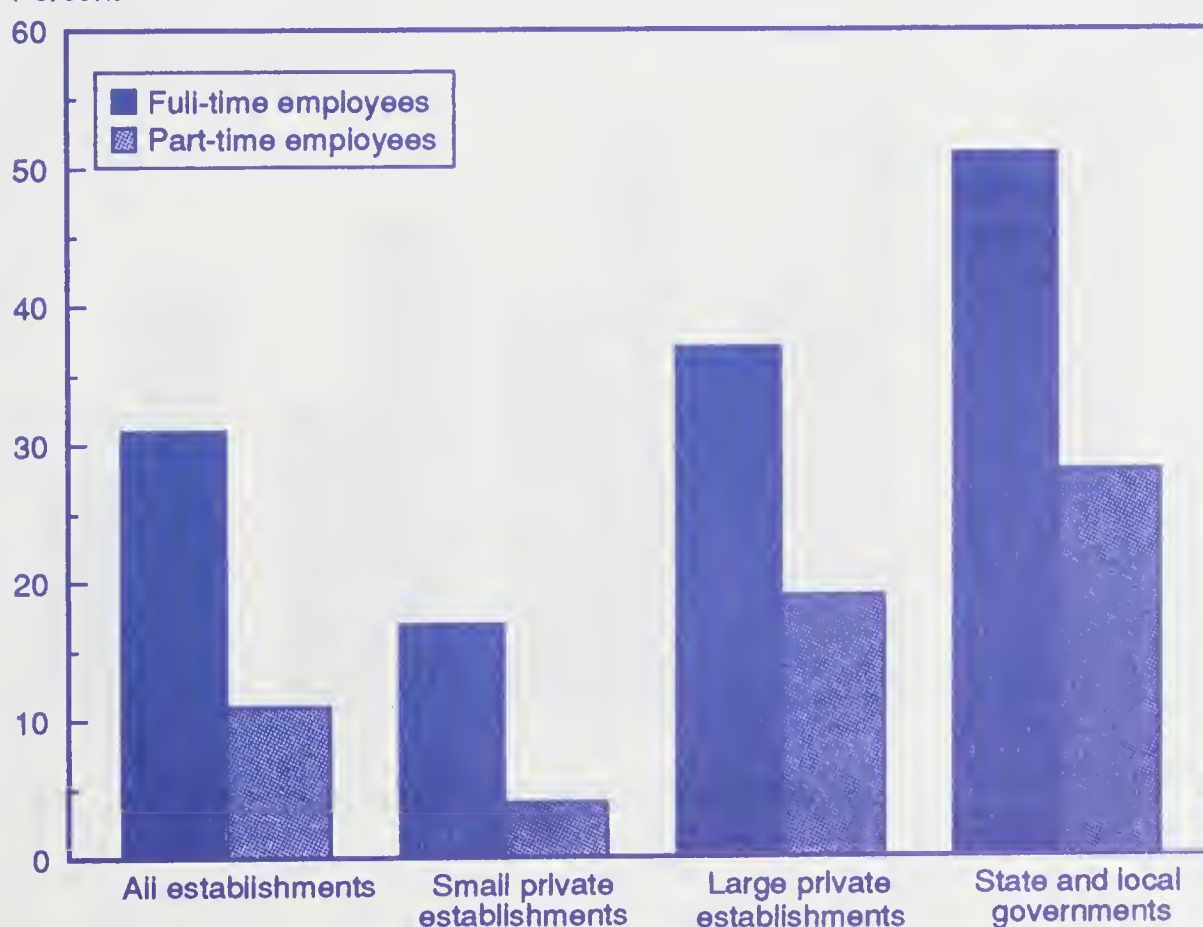
panding its definition of parental leave to include time-off to care for sick relatives. BLS data will continue to provide a comprehensive look at the extent and details of parental and family leave benefits in the United States.

For more information on the extent and details of employer-provided parental leave contact: The Employee Benefits Survey
Office of Compensation and Working Conditions
Bureau of Labor Statistics
2 Massachusetts Ave., NE, Room 4160
Washington, DC 20212-0001
(202) 606-6222.

This is one of a series of BLS occasional reports that present information of current interest to policy makers and the general public.

Employees eligible for unpaid parental leave, 1990-91

Percent



The Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 entitles eligible employees to 12 unpaid workweeks of leave during any 12-month period for three reasons: Birth or placement for adoption or foster care of a child; serious health condition of a spouse, child, or parent; and serious health condition of an employee.

Leave may be taken on an intermittent or reduced basis for the birth or adoption of a child, if the arrangement is agreed to by the employer. Leave for employee or family illness may be taken on an intermittent or reduced basis, if medically necessary, without the employer's approval.

Employees are eligible if they have worked at least 12 months for a given

employer and have worked at least 1,250 hours during the 12 months prior to requesting leave. Excluded are employees who work for an employer who employs fewer than 50 people within a 75-mile radius of the employee's worksite. Coverage applies to private establishments, Federal, State, and local governments, and Congress.

There is no requirement for paid leave under the law. However, an employee who completes a period of leave must be returned to the same position held before the leave, or to a position equivalent in pay, benefits, and other terms and conditions of employment. Employees in the highest paid 10 percent of the employer's workforce may

be denied restoration of the same or equivalent position if such restoration would cause "substantial and grievous economic injury" to the employer's business.

Health benefits must continue during the leave period "under the same conditions coverage would have been provided if the employee had continued in employment continuously during the duration of such leave."

The law takes effect 6 months from February 5, 1993. For employees covered by a collective bargaining agreement, the law takes effect upon the termination of the agreement, but no later than 12 months after February 5, 1993.

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Health Care Benefits Under Close Scrutiny

As debate over the future of the U.S. health care system continues, there is growing interest in employer-provided health care benefits—the largest source of health care coverage. In 1990-91, approximately 63 million employees in non-farm private establishments (excluding private households) and State and local governments—70 percent of all workers in these areas—participated in an employer-sponsored health care plan. These plans vary widely in the benefits they provide and the restrictions they impose, and often require employees to make choices that can affect both their health and financial well-being.

Extent of coverage

The extent of health care coverage varies based on the type of establishment and on whether the employee works a full-time or part-time schedule. Full-time employees in State and local governments participate in health care plans in greater proportions than any other group—93 percent are covered. In contrast, less than 10 percent of part-time workers in small private establishments—employing fewer than 100 workers—have employer-provided health care coverage. The following table indicates the percent of workers in various categories who participate in an employer-provided health care plan:

	Full time	Part time
All establishments	79	17
Private establishments	76	14
Fewer than 100 workers	69	6
100 or more workers	83	28
State and local governments	93	38

Among the trends in health care benefits over the last decade is an increase in the

percent of workers required to contribute toward plan premiums. In 1991, for the first time since such data were collected, a majority of workers in establishments with 100 employees or more was required to contribute toward plan premiums for both individual and family coverage (see chart). Where employees were required to share plan premiums, the average monthly contribution was \$27 for individual coverage and \$97 for family coverage.

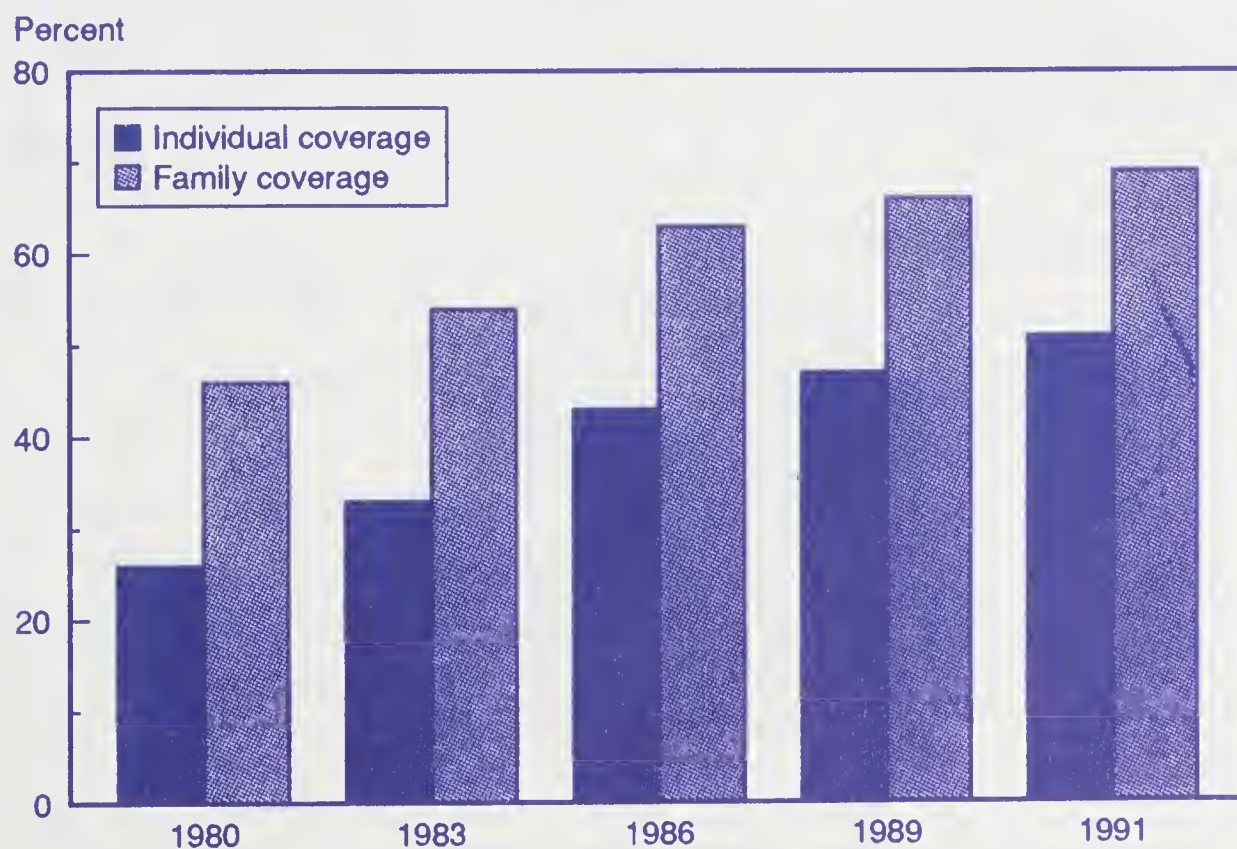
Restrictions on coverage

In addition to requiring employees to help finance plan premiums, employer-provided health care benefits may also impose restrictions that limit the availability of coverage for some workers. For example, some plans stipulate

that an employee must complete a minimum period of service before the employee can join the health care plan. In 1991, 2 out of 5 workers with health care benefits had a service requirement imposed before coverage began. Service requirements of 3 months were most common.

Another method of limiting employee health care coverage is through a pre-existing condition provision. Such provisions restrict coverage for any illness or medical condition that existed before an individual joined a health plan. Typically, a condition is considered pre-existing if it is diagnosed within the 6 months immediately prior to plan coverage. No benefits are then granted until a 6-month waiting period for that condition has elapsed.

Employees with health care benefits who are required to contribute toward plan premiums, selected years, 1980-91



Note: Full-time employees in medium and large private establishments

Types of benefits

There are three broad categories of employer-provided health care benefit plans: Fee-for-service plans, health maintenance organizations (HMO's), and preferred provider organizations (PPO's). Fee-for-service plans are the traditional means of providing health care benefits, and were nearly universal up until the late 1970's. HMO's and PPO's have become more prevalent in recent years. (See table.)

Fee-for-service plans allow patients to choose their health care providers; the plan reimburses the provider or the patient after services are received. Typi-

cally, fee-for-service plans impose a deductible, such as \$200 per year, that must be paid by the patient before the plan pays any benefits. Beyond the deductible, plans often pay 80 percent of charges with patients paying the remaining 20 percent. A plan may include a catastrophic limit on patient costs; when the limit is reached, the plan pays 100 percent of additional charges. Catastrophic limits are commonly \$1,000 for individual expenses and \$2,000 for family expenses.

HMO's provide prepaid services to patients from a selected group of providers. Care is often free of charge or is avail-

able for a small fee, such as \$10 per visit. PPO's are a type of fee-for-service plan that offers individuals a limited choice of health care providers. Patients may seek care from any provider, but are given incentives, in the form of a reduction in required payments, if care is received from a designated provider.

Health care data

The Bureau's Employee Benefits Survey provides extensive data on the availability and details of health care benefits. For more information contact: The Employee Benefits Survey, Office of Compensation and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Room 4160, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6222.

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Percent of employees with health care benefits by type of plan, 1979-91

Plan type	1979	1982	1985	1988	1991
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Fee-for-service	98	96	93	74	67
Health maintenance organization	2	4	7	19	17
Preferred provider organization	—	—	—	7	16

Note: Data are for full-time employees in medium and large private establishments. Dash indicates no employees in this category.

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Family Leave Provisions In Union Contracts

With the exception of maternity leave, work and family problems have entered the negotiating arena relatively recently. Their current concern to negotiators results from the rise in women's participation in the workforce, the increase in dual earner and single parent households, and the growth in the number of elderly who are dependent upon active workforce members.

As might be expected with the emergence of any new issue, work and family provisions in negotiated contracts are not pervasive. In a study published in 1992,¹ maternity leave provisions were found to be the most prevalent, existing in 36 percent of the 452 major agreements studied (those involving 1,000 workers or more) that were in effect on July 1, 1990 or later.² Except for leave for family illness, found in about 17 percent of the contracts, all of the other work and family provisions have an incidence below 10 percent. And these low frequency rates include such high interest issues as child care, eldercare, and parental leave (see table).

Of the agreements examined, those in the transportation equipment industry had the highest incidence of work and family provisions (see chart). In contrast, agreements in some industries contained no work and family provisions at all.

Low frequency rates in contracts, however, do not completely reflect the

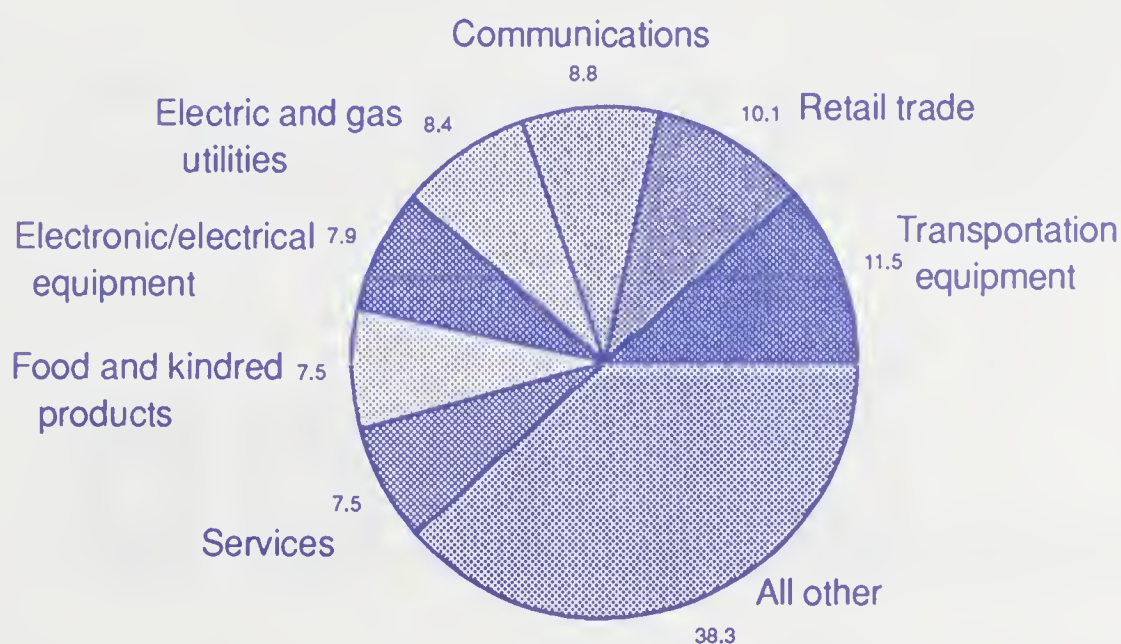
extent of work-family issues in the labor-management relationship. There are many practices and policies, unilaterally or jointly arrived at, that remain outside the contract. In addition, there are a number of other contract clauses, primarily time off provisions, that do not specifically refer to work and family issues but that may be used to meet family needs if the parties are willing to interpret the contract language accordingly. These include compressed work weeks, personal leave, personal holidays, and vacation time, among others.

However, there are additional provisions that touch upon family concerns. None are common in agreements but they are diverse in their coverage, and the scope of family issues they cover is broad. They include leave for gradu-

ation, marriage, medical or other quarantine, and to visit a family member in the armed forces; educational programs for financial planning in auto contracts; group purchase programs for automobile and homeowner's insurance; and college scholarships for the children of workers or parental loans for college tuition at low interest rates. These, too, speak to labor-management concerns with meeting widening family financial needs.

A review of major collective bargaining agreements in connection with a second, unrelated, study reveals a growing flexibility in addressing family needs. Kaiser Permanente and the Service Employees, for example, have agreed to study the availability of individuals who provide child care for sick

Agreements containing work and family provisions by selected industry, July 1, 1990



Note: Universe = 227 agreements.

¹ *Work and Family Provisions in Major Collective Bargaining Agreements*, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor-Management Relations and Cooperative Programs, Report BLMR 144 (1992)

² The agreements canvassed for this report are from the Bureau's file of approximately 2,200 major collective bargaining agreements; they do not constitute a statistically valid sample.

children to see if they can publish a resource and referral list for members; a hospital in New York City has agreed with the Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union to expand its definition of immediate family to cover domestic partners in its clause permitting leave for illness in the family; Pacific Gas & Electric Co. and the Electrical Workers (IBEW) allow employees to sell vacation time and transfer the proceeds to a fund for employees who

experience a medical emergency who have insufficient leave; and the Associated Press and the Newspaper Guild permit job sharing.

A number of telephone companies have negotiated with the Communications Workers clauses specifically allowing leave for "family business"; the Tri Valley Growers and the Teamsters have established a medical examination plan funded by an employer payment for each hour worked by all employees

so that low income workers, their spouses and dependent children can undergo an annual physical examination; Big Three Auto agreements provide for classes on parenting; and finally, two agreements permit the transfer of employees to other locations when family health needs necessitate such a move.

For more information on family leave provisions in collective bargaining, contact the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Developments in Labor-Management Relations, Room 4175, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Washington, DC 20212-0001, telephone (202) 606-7893.

Information on work and family related benefits is also provided by the Bureau's Employee Benefits Survey. The latest data are in *Employee Benefits in Medium and Large Establishments, 1991*, BLS Bulletin 2422, scheduled for publication in Spring 1993.

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Selected work and family provisions found in major collective bargaining agreements, July 1, 1990

Provision	Number of agreements	Number of workers
Total agreements studied	452	2,818,850
Agreements with work and family provisions ¹	227	1,935,050
Maternity leave.....	164	902,000
Leave for family illness	81	630,000
Parental leave	35	517,950
Nondiscrimination for marital status	30	364,600
Adoption.....	28	259,200
Employee assistance programs	25	692,900
Child care.....	24	867,750
Eldercare.....	8	175,300

¹ Nonadditive. Individual agreements may not have more than one selected work and family provision.

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Health insurance premiums dominate health care budget of consumers

Public concern over rising health care costs has ignited an explosion of proposals to reform the American health care system. This report focuses on health care expenditures reported by families participating in the Consumer Expenditure Survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

In 1984, households reported average annual expenditures for health care of \$1,049. By 1992, this had increased to \$1,634, a rise of about 7 percent per year. This rate of increase closely matched the rise in the CPI-U for medical care over the same period. In addition, the share of total household spending allocated to health care has risen. Net health care expenditures made up 4.8 percent of total spending in 1984. In 1992, that had risen to 5.5 percent.

The Consumer Expenditure Survey collects comprehensive data on the buying patterns of American consumers on an ongoing basis. In particular, households report both payments and reimbursements for health care goods and services, yielding net expenditures for health care. Health care includes health insurance and Medicare; services such as eye and dental care, inpatient hospital care, services of physicians and other medical professionals, lab tests, and x rays; prescription and nonprescription drugs; supplies such as antiseptics,

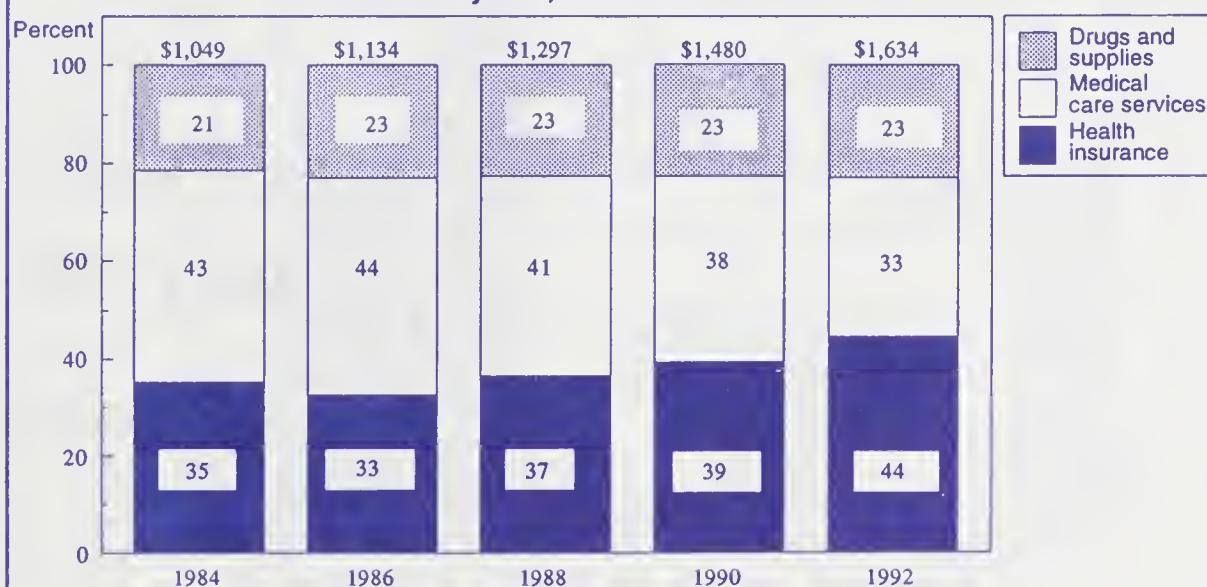
bandages, and thermometers; and medical appliances, such as braces and crutches.

Health care buying patterns

A close look at changes in the components of health care expenditures over the 8-year period reveals that consumers have been spending an increasing amount on health insurance as opposed to medical care services or drugs and supplies. In 1984, average expenditures on medical care services contributed the most—\$454—to total health care costs, about 43 percent (see chart). Health insurance premiums

averaged \$370, the second largest component at 35 percent. Expenditures on health insurance surpassed spending on medical care services in 1990. By 1992, average expenditures on health insurance premiums had jumped 93 percent, to \$725, accounting for 44 percent of average spending on health care by households. Over the same period, average expenditures on medical care services had risen 17 percent, to \$533, and in 1992 accounted for 33 percent of net health care spending. Average spending on drugs and medical supplies increased 67 percent between 1984 and 1992, from \$225 to \$376,

Changes in the composition of the health care budget
Average total expenditures and shares by type of expenditure
for selected years, 1984-1992



Average annual expenditures for health insurance by type of insurance, 1984 and 1992

Type of insurance	1984	1992
All health insurance	\$370	\$725
Commercial health insurance	264	412
Health maintenance plans	15	89
Medicare payments	46	108
Other health insurance	45	116

although its share of total health care spending remained relatively constant over the period, ranging from 21 to 23 percent.

The true cost of private health insurance is not reflected by net expenditures as many policies are subsidized totally or in part by outside sources, particularly employers and unions. Only 33 percent of the policies held by households in the Consumer Expenditure Survey in 1984 and 31 percent of the policies held in 1992 were policies for which families paid the entire premium. However, families were more likely to be copaying policy premiums with another party in 1992 than they were in 1984. In 1984, families paid part of the premium for about 27 percent of the reported private policies. This

percentage jumped to over 36 percent by 1992. Concomitantly, the percentage of policies whose premiums were paid entirely by an employer, union, or other party outside the household declined from 36 percent to 29 percent.

Consumers spent more on commercial health insurance plans, such as Blue Cross/Blue Shield, though a slightly smaller percentage of families reported such expenditures in 1992 than in 1984. The table shows that average expenditures on premiums for these policies rose from \$264 to \$412, or 56 percent.

Consumers turned more often to health maintenance organizations (HMO's) and other prepaid plans to cover their medical needs. In 1992, over 9 percent of the respondents

reported an expenditure for HMO's compared with less than 3 percent in 1984. As a result, average expenditures on HMO's have risen from \$15 to \$89 since 1984, as can be seen in the table.

The last two categories in the table, Medicare payments and other health insurance, such as supplements and dental insurance, also grew from a combined average of \$91 to \$224. A slightly larger percentage of families paid premiums for Medicare and other health insurance in 1992 than in 1984. The former increased from about 20 to 23 percent, while the latter rose from about 9 to over 13 percent.

For more information on the Bureau's Consumer Expenditure Survey, contact the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Branch of Information and Analysis, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Room 3985, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6900. Information in this report is available to the sensory impaired upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577.

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Growth of Jobs With Above Average Earnings Projected at All Education Levels

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) projects the Nation's employment to grow by almost 26.4 million over the 1992-2005 period. The majority of these new jobs will be in higher paying occupations. Entry requirements of the new jobs in occupations having above average earnings will range from no more than a high school education to a college bachelor's degree or even higher. The BLS projections of occupational employment are part of a comprehensive series of economic projections that also encompasses growth in the labor force, real gross domestic product by major component, and industry output and employment.

Occupations where the most common entry requirement is a bachelor's degree or higher are projected to have the greatest increase of jobs with above average earnings (see chart). Jobs for college graduates with above average earnings will comprise over 30 percent—nearly 8.1 million—of the new jobs. Nearly one-quarter of the new jobs that require at least a 4-year college degree will be in just five occupations: Accountants and auditors, systems analysts, and elementary, secondary, and special education teachers.

Occupations that most commonly require postsecondary training less than a bachelor's degree are also expected to have significant growth of jobs with above average earnings. Jobs in this group are projected to increase by nearly 2.8 million, over 10 percent of the new jobs. Nearly half of the new jobs with higher earnings that will require postsecondary training less than a bachelor's degree will be in only four occupations: Food service and lodging managers, licensed practical nurses, registered nurses, and radiologic technologists and technicians.

The majority of all jobs in 1992 were in occupations that do not require education beyond high school. Although the share of jobs that require this level of education is projected to decline in the years ahead, more

than half of the total job growth over the 1992-2005 period will, nevertheless, occur in these occupations. Job growth among occupations that most commonly require a high school education or employer training is expected to be greatest in occupations with below average earnings. Jobs in occupations with above average earnings in this education group are also projected to increase by almost 4.3 million, over 28 percent of the economy's total job growth.

Across the three education groups, over 57 percent of the Nation's total job growth is expected to be in occupations that had above average earnings in 1992. The table

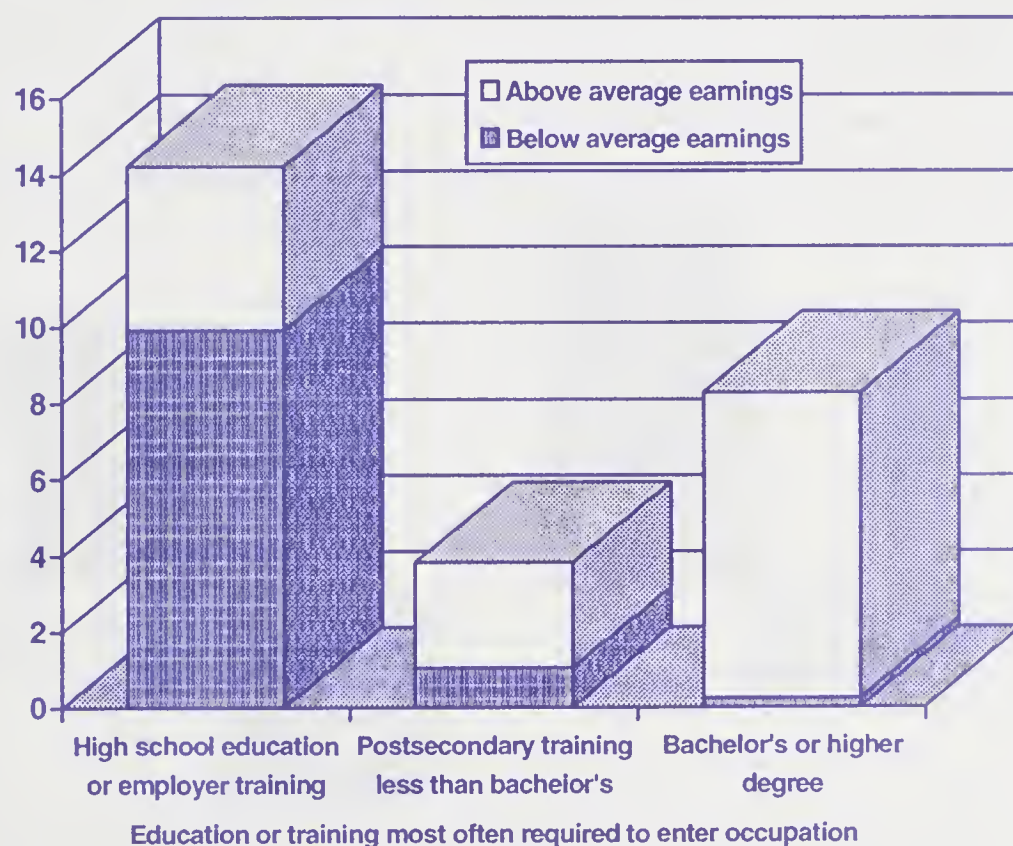
below lists for the three groups the occupations with above average earnings projected to have the greatest net employment change over the 1992-2005 period.

The latest BLS projections were presented in detail in the November 1993 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review* and in *The American Work Force: 1992-2005* (BLS Bulletin 2452).

For more information on the data in this report, call the Office of Employment Projections at (202)-606-5700. Information in this report is available to the sensory impaired upon request. Voice phones: (202)-606-7828; TDD phones: (202)-606-5897; TDD message referral: 1-800-826-2577.

Projected employment growth by earnings and level of education and training, 1992-2005.

Projected net change in employment, in millions.



Bureau of Labor Statistics

Occupations with above average earnings projected to have the greatest net employment change 1992-2005, by level of education or training most often required
(Employment in thousands)

High school education or employer training			Postsecondary education or formal training, less than a bachelor's degree			Bachelor's or higher degree		
Occupation	1992	Net change 1992-2005	Occupation	1992	Net change 1992-2005	Occupation	1992	Net change 1992-2005
Truck drivers, light and heavy	2,391	648	Registered nurses	1,835	765	Systems analysts	455	501
Marketing and sales worker supervisors	2,036	407	Licensed practical nurses	659	261	Teachers, secondary school	1,263	462
Maintenance repairers, general utility	1,145	319	Food service and lodging managers	532	232	General managers and top executives	2,871	380
Clerical supervisors and managers	1,267	301	Radiologic technologists and technicians	162	102	Teachers, elementary	1,456	311
Human services workers	189	256	Paralegals	95	81	Accountants and auditors	939	304
Blue collar worker supervisors	1,757	217	Electrical and electronic technicians and technologists	323	74	Teachers, special education	358	267
Carpenters	978	198	Science and mathematics technicians	244	61	Lawyers	626	195
Correction officers	282	197	Musicians	236	59	Physicians	556	195
Automotive mechanics	739	168	Cost estimators	163	49	Social workers	484	191
Painters and paperhangers, construction and maintenance	440	128	Medical records technicians	76	47	Financial managers	701	174
Electricians	518	100	Dental hygienists	108	46	Computer programmers	555	169
Police and detectives	700	92	Inspectors and compliance officers, except construction	155	42	Marketing, advertising, and public relations managers	432	156
Bus and truck mechanics and diesel engine specialists	263	64	Respiratory therapists	74	36	Teachers and instructors, vocational education and training	305	111
Heat, air conditioning, and refrigeration mechanics and installers	212	62	Drafters	314	35	Engineering, mathematical, and natural science managers	337	106
Driver/sales workers	329	60	Sales agent, real estate	283	32	Personnel, training, and labor relations specialists	281	102
Firefighting occupations	305	50	Construction and building inspectors	66	20	Instructors and coaches, sports and physical training	260	94
Welders and cutters	306	46	Physician assistants	58	20	Electrical and electronics engineers	370	90
Dispatchers	221	46				Management analysts	208	89
Drywall installers and finishers	121	44				Property and real estate managers	243	85
Insurance claims clerks	116	43				Construction managers	180	85

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Women's Labor Force Commitment Remains Firm

For almost three decades, the proportion of women who were working or looking for work rose consistently. This climb in the women's labor force participation rate appeared to be independent of economic contraction (recession) or expansion. Between 1989 and 1991, this trend was unexpectedly interrupted and, although the proportion rose again in 1992, it flattened out the next year.

Background

The interruption in the long-term rise in the proportion of women in the labor force was attributed to three factors: 1) The business cycle; 2) a pronounced rise in births; and 3) changes in the generally erratic participation trends of 16- to 24-year-old women—especially teenagers.¹

The resumption of labor force growth among women temporarily stilled concerns. But, when this growth again halted in 1993, speculations about a trend reversal reemerged.²

Are there, in fact, major new shifts occurring in women's labor force participation? This question will be addressed in the following analysis which examines BLS data on trends in women's labor force participation by age group—concentrating largely on women under 45. The data used for this analysis are from the Current Population Survey.³

¹ See U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Women's Labor Force Growth Appears Stalled," *Issues in Labor Statistics*, Summary 92-2, January 1992.

² See Maggie Mahar, "A Change of Place" *Barron's*, pp.33-38.

³ The Current Population Survey (CPS) is a nationwide sample survey of about 60,000 households conducted each month by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). The purpose of the survey is to obtain information on the labor market activity of persons 16 years old and over in the civilian noninstitutional population.

Women's participation rate trends by age

Women 16 to 24 years old are at the age when the transition from school to work and adulthood takes place, and so their attachment to the labor market, particularly among the younger members of this age group, is often tenuous. In 1993, the labor force participation rate of teenage girls was 49.9 percent, 12 percentage points higher than in 1965 (table 1). However, this growth did not proceed as a steady progression. Instead, the movements in the group's labor force participation rate appear roughly parallel to the business cycle, growing during periods of economic expansion and shrinking during periods

of contraction. Family formation certainly did not play a major role in the most recent decline in the participation of these teenagers, as the proportions who were married or had children (5 and 8 percent, respectively) were unchanged over the period. School enrollment, however, may have played a role because students are considerably less likely to be labor force participants than non-students of the same age. In 1993, 64 percent of the teenage girls were in school, compared with 60 percent in 1987.

The participation rate for women 20 to 24 years old followed a much smoother track, growing steadily until 1987 when it reached 73 percent. Subsequently, it edged slowly downward to 70 percent in

Changes in labor force participation and school enrollment rates for young women, 1987-1993 annual averages

Percentage point change



Table 1. Labor force participation rates of women by age, annual averages for selected years, 1965-93
(Percent)

Year	Total, 16 years and over	16 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 years years
1965	39.3	38.0	49.9	38.5	46.1	50.9	24.6
1970	43.3	44.0	57.7	45.0	51.1	54.4	25.3
1975	46.3	49.1	64.1	54.9	55.8	54.6	23.1
1980	51.5	52.9	68.9	65.5	65.5	59.9	22.8
1985	54.5	52.1	71.8	70.9	71.8	64.4	22.0
1986	55.3	53.0	72.4	71.6	73.1	65.9	22.1
1987	56.0	53.3	73.0	72.4	74.5	67.1	22.0
1988	56.6	53.6	72.7	72.7	75.2	69.0	22.3
1989	57.4	53.9	72.4	73.5	76.0	70.5	23.0
1990	57.5	51.8	71.6	73.6	76.5	71.2	23.0
1991	57.3	50.2	70.4	73.3	76.6	72.0	22.8
1992	57.8	49.2	71.2	74.1	76.8	72.7	23.0
1993	57.9	49.9	71.3	73.6	76.7	73.5	23.0

1991. Once again, the family situation appears to have had little to do with this decline. The proportion who were married was somewhat lower in 1993 than in 1987 (28 versus 33 percent), reflecting the trend towards later marriages, while the proportion with children (30 percent) was unchanged. A change in school enrollment is probably the major factor underlying their post-1987 labor force trend, as the proportion who were in school rose from about 20 percent in 1987 to 26 percent by 1993.

Turning to the other age groups, the rise in labor force participation among women 25 to 34 and 35 to 44 years old began slowing in the late 1980's. Since 1990, their participation rates appear to have flattened out. As for women 45 to 54 years old, participation rates continued to advance through the early 1990's, while those for women 55 years and over remained flat.

Conclusion

Individually, large numbers of women decide to enter or leave the labor force during the course of any given year. But, the suggestion that the balance has turned in favor of a flow of women out of the labor force is not supported by the data.

Looking closely at trends in women's labor force activity, it is difficult to find any evidence that women might be leaving the labor force in large numbers to take up homemaker roles. Among the 16- to 19 and 20- to 24 year-old women—whose labor force participation rates have indeed declined in recent years—the overwhelming majority have neither husbands nor children. An increase in school enrollment and the recessionary job market of the early 1990's are the most likely causes of their decline in work activity. Women from age 25 to age 44 have had no consistent

movement either up or down in their labor force participation rates since 1990.

The fact that the 1989-93 data show that there has been at least a cessation in the secular growth in women's labor force participation is, however, a meaningful development. Even if the data do not show a work-to-home movement, but merely a cessation of growth in women's labor force participation, that would be significant, too. But, as the analysis of the data suggest, it is still too early for us to proclaim that the long-term trend has been halted.

Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577. For additional information concerning this report, call (202) 606-6378.

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Worker Safety Problems Spotlighted in Health Care Industries

In recent years, health services industries were a primary source of employment growth, delivering about 2 million new jobs between 1980 and 1989 and another million by 1992. But rapid job creation has left health care workers with an adverse side effect: They have lost the safe work place advantage that they had enjoyed over all private industry workers at the start of the 1980's.

The cost implications to health care providers of relatively high injury rates for their employees are especially troublesome down the road because, according to BLS estimates, the industry's work force is expected to grow at twice the rate for all nonfarm wage and salary workers between 1992 and 2005. In 1992, private health services employed 8.5 million workers, for whom nearly 700,000 work-related injuries and illnesses were reported that year.

The accompanying chart tracks the rise in injury and illness rates in all health services, including doctors' offices, hospitals, nursing homes, medical labs, and allied health providers, from about 6 cases per 100 full-time workers in 1980 to over 10 cases per 100 workers in 1992. Much of this rate increase occurred between 1989 and 1992, with 1991 the crossover year when health care workers lost their safety edge over all private industry workers.

Safety risks vary by services provided

Since 1980, BLS has taken injury and illness readings in nursing homes and in hospitals, the two largest employ-

ers of health services. The readings for both industries were much higher in 1992 than in 1980, as the table shows. In nursing homes, rates soared to more than double the national figure in 1992. In hospitals, rates moved markedly above the national average in 1990 and have remained there. Deteriorating safety and health records in these two industries helped dull the safety edge that all health services once enjoyed.

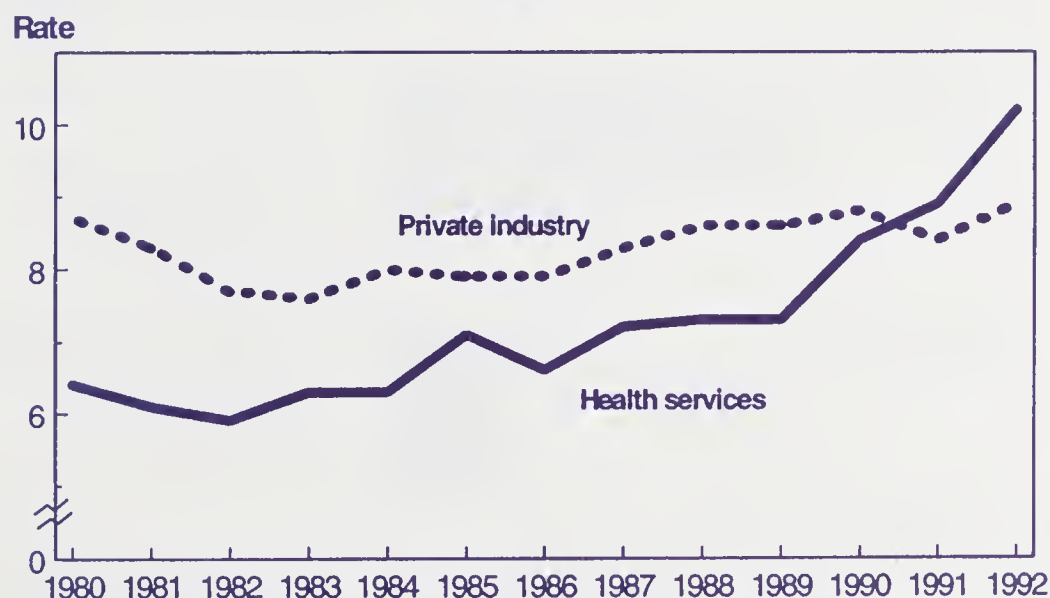
Not all groupings of health care workers face elevated safety risks, however. Offices of medical doctors reported fewer than 3 work-related injuries and illnesses for every 100 full-time workers in 1992, a rate only about one-third that of private industry. And workers in medical and dental laboratories sustained injuries and illnesses no

more frequently than the national rate.

So why does the risk of workers being injured vary widely among health care providers? The variation appears to reflect, for the most part, differing patient care needs and how caregivers respond in the various health care settings.

Within nursing homes, for example, many patients require round-the-clock assistance with the basic activities of daily living, such as getting in and out of bed or chair, bathing, and using the toilet. Such physically-demanding assistance, often carried out by nursing aides and orderlies, is less evident in hospitals, which typically provide acute care rather than long-term care for the elderly. Many hospital services, moreover, are provided on an outpatient

Work injuries and illnesses per 100 full-time workers in health services industries and all private industries, 1980-92



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Annual Survey, 1992

Injury and illness rates per 100 full-time workers, 1980-92

Year	Private industry	Health Services ¹	Nursing homes	Hospitals
1980	8.7	6.4	10.7	7.9
1981	8.3	6.1	10.5	7.2
1982	7.7	5.9	10.1	7.3
1983	7.6	6.3	11.0	7.4
1984	8.0	6.3	11.6	7.3
1985	7.9	7.1	13.3	8.1
1986	7.9	6.6	13.5	7.6
1987	8.3	7.2	14.2	8.5
1988	8.6	7.3	15.0	8.7
1989	8.6	7.3	15.5	8.5
1990	8.8	8.4	15.6	10.6
1991	8.4	8.9	15.3	11.5
1992	8.9	10.2	18.6	12.0

¹ Includes health providers in addition to nursing homes and hospitals.

basis, thereby reducing the need for inpatient care and its attendant hazards to nursing personnel.
Thus, it is not surprising that nursing

homes have the highest injury rates of all health services industries. But BLS data also point to a lesser known fact: The nursing homes rate now stands

above any rate reported for the construction industry, where hazardous worksites are well documented.

Worker safety data

The Bureau’s annual survey of work-related injuries and illnesses provides extensive data on their number and frequency for several hundred detailed industries. With the 1992 survey, BLS began providing additional detailed information on cases involving lost worktime in the form of worker and case characteristics data. For more information contact, the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Room 3180, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6304.

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Shifting Work Force Spawns New Set of Hazardous Occupations

Fifty years ago, the phrase “injury at work” typically conjured up visions of coal miners, steelworkers, or other hazardous, male-dominated occupations. Back then, half the Nation’s work force was working on farms, factory floors, construction locations, and mining sites. Those were the places—collectively called “goods-producing” industries—where most serious injuries occurred.

Mention “injury at work” today and very different images might appear. Nowadays, the large majority of American workers are employed in “service-producing” industries, where they warehouse and transport goods rather than produce them, or where they deliver services, for example, as employees of stores, restaurants, cable TV companies, and health care institutions. Service-producing industries are where most injuries presently occur. They are also the worksites where virtually all job growth is expected between 1992 and 2005, according to BLS projections; therefore, they are the places where most workers are likely to remain in harm’s way as we enter the next millennium.

Given the changed landscape of work and workers, what are the occupations of the 1990s within which workers commonly sustain serious injuries? This question could not be addressed fully until 1992, when BLS launched its first nationwide study of who was disabled on the job and how it happened. Based on that study’s findings, the accompanying chart lists the 10 occupations with the most injuries and illnesses involving days away from work. Together, their 734,000 cases accounted for a substantial share (nearly a third) of all 2.3 million

cases serious enough to require some time away from work.

Service-producing activities dominate high-hazard list

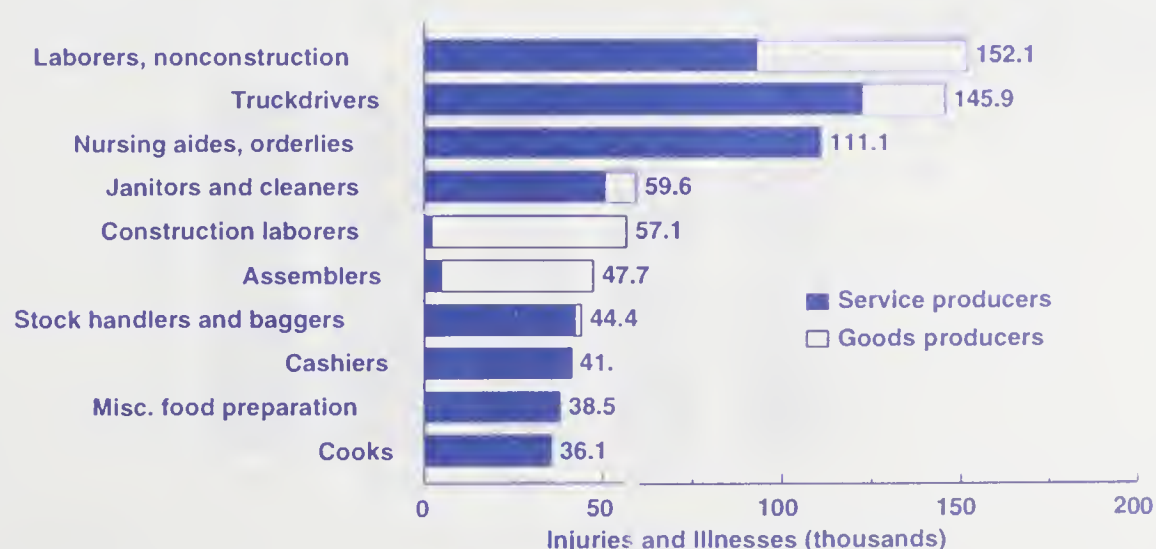
All but 2 of the 10 high-hazard occupations had close ties to the service-producing activities of their employers, as the chart shows. Injured truckers, for example, primarily hauled for trucking services and wholesalers while nursing aides chiefly cared for patients in hospitals or nursing homes. Similarly, injured cashiers commonly helped customers check out groceries or general merchandise. The two exceptions were construction laborers, who almost always sustained their injuries on construction sites, and assemblers injured typically while putting together products on factory floors.

One unwanted byproduct of the employment shift from goods-producing to service-producing industries is that

women workers, nine-tenths of whom work in the latter industries, now make up about one-third of all serious, nonfatal injuries and illnesses. Moreover, their share of total cases was much larger for several of the hazardous jobs in the accompanying table: About 40 percent for injured assemblers and cooks; nearly 50 percent for various kitchen-related jobs; over 75 percent for cashiers; and nearly 90 percent for nursing aides and orderlies.

Clearly, work injuries no longer border on being the sole province of working men. Their two-thirds share of such serious injuries, in fact, might diminish somewhat if the service-producing sector proves to be the dominant job creator of the early 21st century. That might happen partly because men compose a slightly smaller share of work injuries in service-producing industries (57 percent in 1992) than their two-thirds share of all private industries.

Occupations with the most injuries and illnesses involving days away from work, 1992



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Annual Survey, 1992

Occupations with the most injuries and illnesses involving days away from work, selected characteristics, 1992

Occupation	Total cases (000's)	Women as a percent of total	Service producers' share of total
Laborers, nonconstruction	152.1	15	61
Truckdrivers	145.9	4	84
Nursing aides, orderlies	111.1	88	100
Janitors and cleaners	59.6	32	84
Construction laborers	57.1	3	4
Assemblers	47.7	40	10
Stock handlers/baggers	44.4	29	95
Cashiers	41.7	77	99
Misc. food preparation	38.5	49	99
Cooks	36.1	42	99

NOTE: "Service producers" include private employers in transportation and public utilities; whole-sale and retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and services.
"Goods producers" include private employers in agriculture, forestry, and fishing; mining; construc-tion; and manufacturing industries.

About the work injury data

The 1992 BLS survey of serious, nonfatal injuries and illnesses was the first nationwide study of its kind to identify workers most at risk and the risks themselves.

"Most at risk" is defined in the survey as worker groups cited with the largest

number of cases involving days away from work. No incidence rate for workers most at risk is computed, however, because the survey does not measure the degree of exposure to such risks for specific groups of workers.

The "risks" are described in four ways: The disabling condition, part of the body

affected, the event or exposure associated with the incident, and the source producing the disabling condition. Besides identifying the "who and how" of serious work injuries, the study also permits a look at injury and illness severity as measured by the duration of cases involving days away from work for various groups of workers, including the 10 high-hazard occupations. Finally, the study enables researchers to analyze a specific injury or illness in some detail, for example overexertion while lifting, using data on worker demographics, case characteristics, and case severity.

For more information on this study contact, the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Room 3180, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6304. Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828, TDD phone (202) 606-5897, TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577.

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Repetitive Tasks Loosen Some Workers' Grip on Safety and Health

Ailments from performing repetitive tasks at work have been increasingly recognized and reported by physicians and employers in recent years. In fact, the latest tally of such disorders—281,800 in 1992—was more than double the comparable count reported 4 years earlier. Federal Government statistics on repeated-trauma disorders span a variety of ailments resulting from repeated motion, pressure, or vibration, such as carpal tunnel syndrome, tendinitis, and noise-induced hearing loss.

Although still just a small fraction of the 6.8 million injuries and illnesses reported by private employers in 1992, repeated-trauma disorders are growing far more rapidly than other work-related problems. The number of repeated-trauma cases reported in 1992 was 144 percent higher than the number in 1988. By contrast, the number of injury and illness cases, except repeated traumas, was 3 percent higher in 1992 than in 1988. Repeated-trauma disorders, moreover, are beginning to spread beyond their traditional haunts in manufacturing, affecting increasing numbers of workers in offices, stores, and other nonfactory settings.

The accompanying chart tracks the shifting allocations of repeated-trauma disorders between manufacturing and private nonmanufacturing industries. It shows that nonmanufacturing industries' share has risen steadily, from 10 percent of all such disorders reported in 1988 to 22 percent reported in 1992. Over this period, both industry groups experienced sharp increases in reported cases. The share for nonmanufacturing industries rose because the number of repeated-

trauma disorders increased more than fivefold, far outstripping the doubling of similar cases reported in manufacturing industries.

Auto and meat plants lead list

Leading the list of industries with the largest number of repeated-trauma cases were motor vehicle and meat products manufacturing, where about 1 in every 4 of all reported repeated-trauma cases occurred. (See table.) The repetitive nature of work in these settings, often performed using tools on assembly lines, is well documented. Not all manufacturing, however, can be characterized this way. Witness newspaper publishing, a manufacturing industry where repeated trauma disorders are primarily a result of constant computer keying.

Of special note are the four non-

manufacturing industries, three of which made the list for the first time. (The list includes any industry with at least 2,500 cases reported in 1992.) Grocery stores primarily draws its ties to repeated-trauma disorders through the placing, grasping, and moving of objects, such as the scanning done by workers at check-out counters. The other three nonmanufacturing industries cited for the first time in 1992 were hospitals; fire, marine, and casualty insurance; and telephone communications. Three other nonmanufacturing industries stand poised for listing in years to come: Scheduled airlines, department stores, and mail-order and other nonstore retailers.

"Disorders associated with repeated trauma" is one of seven categories of work-related illnesses included in the Bureau's Annual Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses. The survey

Percent distribution of disorders associated with repeated trauma by major industry group, 1988-92



SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Annual Surveys

Industries with the largest number of repeated-trauma disorders reported in 1992

Industry	Cases	Industry	Cases
Total private	281,800		
Motor vehicles/equipment	40,600	Household appliances	3,500
Meat products	36,500	Electronic components	
Men's/boys' furnishings	8,600	and accessories	3,500
Aircraft and parts	8,600	Misc. electrical equipment	
Grocery stores	5,800	and supplies	3,400
Miscellaneous plastics		Fire, marine, and	
manufacturing	5,200	casualty insurance	3,400
Metal forgings/stampings	5,100	Medical instruments	
Hospitals	4,500	and supplies	3,100
Knitting mills	3,900	Newspapers	2,700
Refrigeration machinery	3,500	Telephone communications	2,700

Note: Nonmanufacturing industries are in boldface.

provides extensive data on injuries and illnesses for several hundred detailed industries. For more information contact, the Office of Safety, Health, and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Room 3180, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6304.

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Violence in the Workplace Comes Under Closer Scrutiny

Homicides in the workplace have gained prominence in recent years, but the motives behind these heinous crimes have been largely misunderstood. While conventional wisdom believes them to be primarily crimes of anger and passion, recently released data from the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries point to robbery as the primary motive. And that census further shows that handling money at work during evening hours can heighten the risk of becoming a homicide statistic.

The BLS Census counted 1,063 work-related homicides in 1993, its second year in operation. The accompanying chart depicts these homicides from three perspectives: Motive, primary work activity, and time of incident. It shows that a clear majority of those tragic deaths happened during a robbery. Often they occurred in places we visit almost every day: Restaurants, convenience and grocery stores, and gas stations. Many were committed well into the evening hours when few customers and employees were around to witness the incident. Under similar conditions, some taxicab drivers also fell victim to deadly nocturnal attacks.

Homicide was, by far, the leading manner in which women were fatally injured on the job. Deadly violence took the lives of 188 women workers in 1993, or about 40 percent of the 481 women fatally injured that year. Women homicide victims worked at a variety of jobs, including cashiers, innkeepers, store owners, waitresses, and office clerks.

Other violence at work

Besides profiling homicides, BLS recently began surveying the number of nonfatal assaults and acts of violence in private workplaces that required injured wage and salary workers to take off a workday or more. In 1992, about 22,400 of such incidents were reported, each requiring, on average, about 5 days away from work to recuperate.

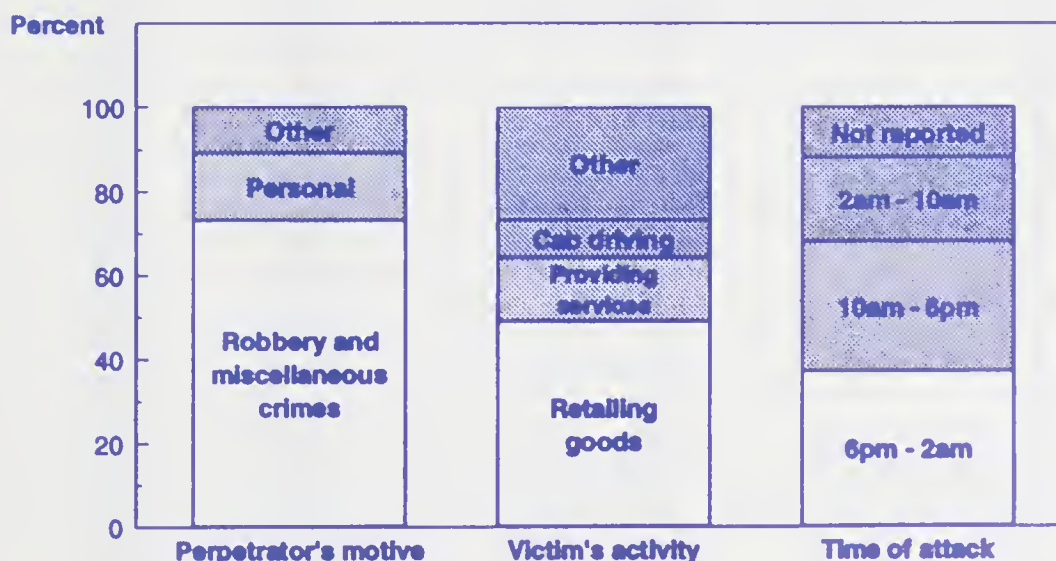
The accompanying table shows that the way nonfatal violent incidents occurred differed markedly from the pattern for work-related homicides. Shootings and stabbings, for example, accounted for about 5 percent of nonfatal cases but they were about 90 percent of all homicides counted in both the 1992 and the 1993 BLS Census. Still, some shooting and stabbing survivors might

have been only inches away from being counted in the 1992 BLS Census. Instead, they required, on average, 5 to 6 weeks away from work for their wounds to heal. Victims of shootings and stabbings, both fatal and nonfatal, overwhelmingly were men.

A sizable proportion of the victims of nonfatal violence were caregivers in nursing homes and hospitals. Ironically, some of these workers were injured by intransigent patients, who resisted their assistance; others were assaulted by patients prone to violence. Most of these caregivers were female nurses and their aides. And typically they required about 3 to 5 days away from work to recuperate from their injuries.

For more information on the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries

Percent distribution of homicides at work by motive, activity, and time, 1993



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, 1993

Assaults and other violent acts resulting in days away from work, selected characteristics, private industry, 1992

Violent act	Total cases	Women as a percent of total	Median days away from work
Total, violent acts by persons	22,396	56	5
Hitting/kicking/beating	10,425	55	5
Squeezing/pinching/scratching/twisting	2,457	84	4
Biting	901	53	3
Stabbing	598	7	28
Shooting	560	3	30
All other specified acts (e.g., rape, threats)	5,157	60	5
Unspecified acts	2,301	46	6

and its companion annual survey of disabling (lost worktime) injuries and illnesses, contact, the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave.NE., Room 3180, Washington DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6304.

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Part-time Work: A Choice Or A Response

In 1993, about 21 million persons—nearly a fifth of the total in nonagricultural industries—worked part time, that is, less than 35 hours a week. The vast majority of persons working part time do so voluntarily. Over the past two decades, however, the number of involuntary part-time workers, those who want full-time jobs but who settle for part-time work, has increased dramatically. This rise in involuntary part-time employment has raised concern not only because of the problems it can cause individual workers, but also because it represents an underuse of the Nation's labor resources.

Characteristics of part-time workers

There are differences between the voluntary and involuntary components of part-time employment. Differences also occur among involuntary part-time workers based on whether they usually work part time or full time.

An example of a person working part time involuntarily who usually works part time might be a worker who takes a night or weekend job in a department store, because he or she can find no other work. The schedule for such a job might be 25 hours a week, and that is all the worker can consistently expect to work. In contrast, a typical person involuntarily working part time who usually works full time might be a construction worker who only works 3 days during the week because one job ended and no other work was immediately available. If the ordinary weekly schedule for such a worker was 40 hours or more, he or she would be classified as usually working full time.

Age, sex, and race. Voluntary part timers are likely to be women age 25 to 54, young people (age 16 to 24), or older people (age 60 and over). (See table.) For each of these groups, the choice of working part time appears to be tied to a desire to combine work with other activities, such as raising children, going to school, or retirement interests.

The involuntary part-time workers who usually work part time are also more likely to be women age 25 to 54 or young people,

although the proportions in those age groups are somewhat smaller than they are for voluntary part-time workers. However, older workers are not disproportionately represented in this group.

Among the involuntary part-time workers who usually work full time, there is a much higher proportion of men age 25 to 54 than in the other two groups. Young people (particularly those age 20 to 24) also are overrepresented in this group. One area of similarity among the two groups of involuntary part-time workers is that both have relatively high proportions of minority workers, while the voluntary part-time group has a relatively low proportion of minorities.

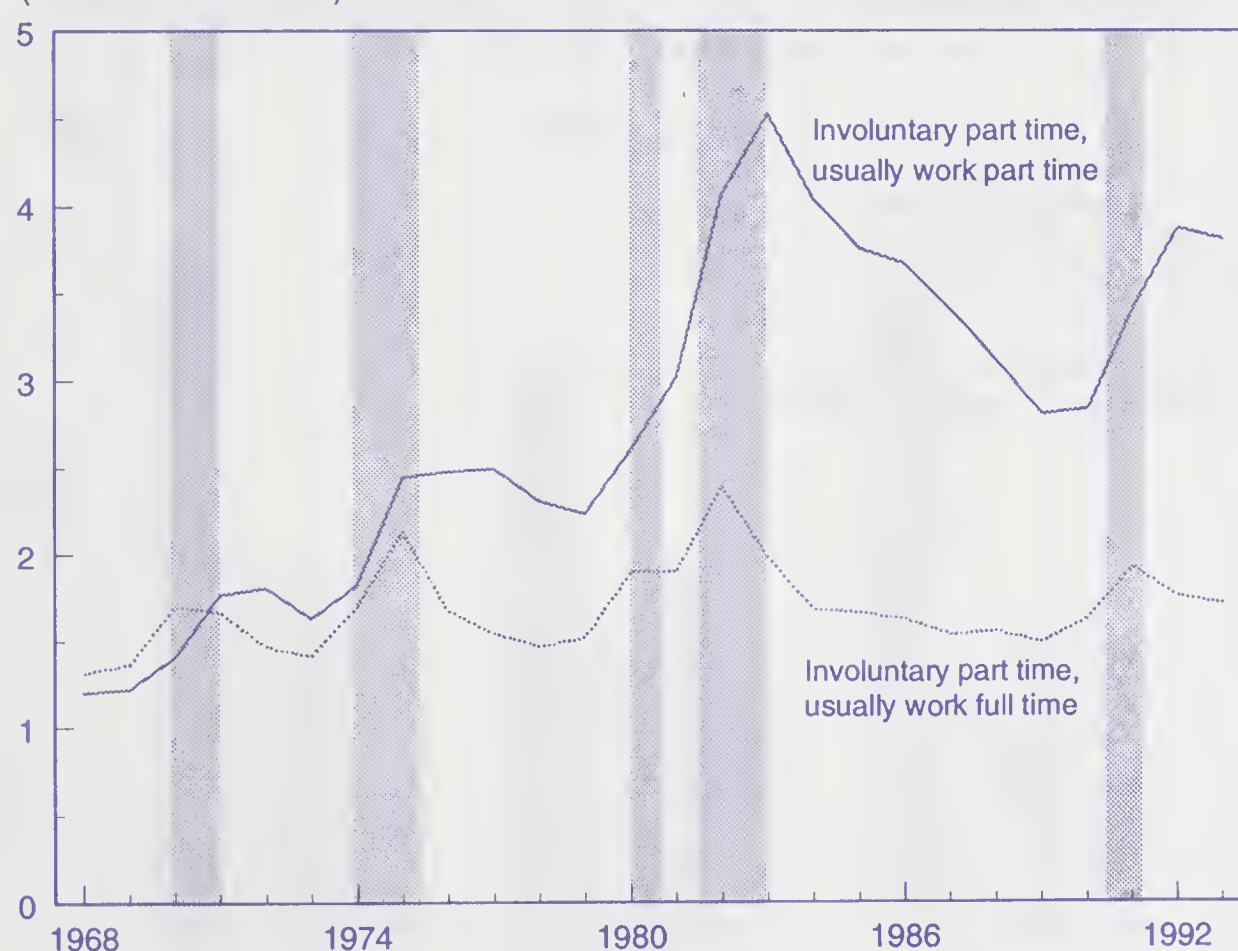
Trends in part-time work

Between 1973 and 1993, the proportion of persons at work who were part timers

rose from 16.6 to 18.8 percent. All of the increase was among involuntary part-time workers who usually work part time. The ratio of that group to the total number of persons at work grew in a steplike pattern as sharp increases during recessions were followed by smaller declines in the ensuing recoveries. In contrast, the proportion of involuntary part timers who usually work full time has remained relatively steady, except for up and down movements during business cycles. (See chart.) The proportion of all persons at work who are voluntary part-time workers also has been relatively stable, fluctuating around 13.6 percent.

Although the ratio of voluntary part time to total employment has not changed since the early 1970s, the trend has varied among worker groups. Working women age 25 to 54 now are less likely to be voluntary part-

Persons at work part time for economic reasons in nonagricultural industries, 1968-93 annual averages
(Percent of total at work)



NOTE: Shaded areas indicate recessions.

Persons at work in nonagricultural industries by part-time status, age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin, 1993 annual averages

Category	Total at work	Voluntary part time	Involuntary part time		
			Total	Usual full time	Usual part time
Total, 16 years and over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 to 19 years	4.7	20.4	9.8	5.2	11.9
20 to 24 years	10.4	15.4	16.4	13.1	17.8
25 to 54 years	73.2	45.0	63.2	71.5	59.4
55 years and over	11.8	19.2	10.6	10.2	10.8
Men, 16 years and over	54.0	30.8	46.6	59.5	40.9
16 to 19 years	2.3	9.6	4.8	2.9	5.6
20 to 24 years	5.4	6.4	8.1	7.7	8.2
25 to 54 years	39.7	7.1	29.1	42.8	22.9
55 years and over	6.5	7.7	4.7	6.1	4.1
Women, 16 years and over	46.0	69.2	53.3	40.5	59.1
16 to 19 years	2.3	10.8	5.0	2.2	6.3
20 to 24 years	5.0	9.0	8.3	5.4	9.6
25 to 54 years	33.4	37.9	34.1	28.7	36.5
55 years and over	5.3	11.5	5.9	4.1	6.7
White, 16 years and over ...	85.9	89.3	81.1	82.0	80.6
Black, 16 years and over ...	10.3	7.3	15.0	14.5	15.2
Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	7.6	5.6	12.9	14.1	12.3

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding. Detail for race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals because data for the "other races" group are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups.

time workers, while workers age 16 to 24 and working men age 55 and over are more likely to choose part-time work. In contrast, the long-term increase in the number of involuntary part timers who usually work part time has occurred among virtually all worker groups.

A rise in the proportion of workers who are employed part time can result from an increase in the proportion of part-time workers within industries or from faster growth among industries having a large proportion of part-time workers. For example, between 1979 and 1990 the

increase in the ratio of part-time workers to the total is accounted for entirely by the faster growth of industries that employ many part timers, rather than a rise in the proportion of part-time workers within industries. In particular, the growing share of jobs in services, retail trade, and finance, insurance, and real estate resulted in a small rise in the proportion of workers who are employed part time.

The start of a recession in the middle of 1990 brought another increase in involuntary part-time employment. Both the number and the proportion of workers who

were involuntarily on part-time schedules rose between mid-1990 and the fall of 1991. Unlike the experience in prior business cycles, it then showed little movement through 1992 and 1993, despite the fact that the recession's low point was in March 1991. In each of the four prior recoveries, the number and proportion of involuntary part-time workers had dropped sharply after the end of the recession.

The recovery of the labor market during the recent business cycle has been unusual in several other respects. In particular, nonfarm payroll employment continued to decline for 11 months after March 1991, and the unemployment rate did not reach its highest point until June 1992. Thus, the trend in involuntary part-time employment over this period fit in with the larger picture of sluggishness in the labor market.

The data on part-time workers in this report are from the Current Population Survey (CPS) which is conducted each month by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. However, because the data are for 1993, they are based on the procedures for estimating part-time employment prior to the introduction of the redesigned CPS questionnaire in January 1994. The questions on part-time work were substantially altered on the redesigned questionnaire.

For more information on this study, contact the Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE., Washington, DC, 20212, (202) 606-6378. Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577.

*U.S. Government Printing Office: 1994 — 301-930/00029

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The Demographics of Family Spending

Differences in various demographic characteristics appear among four-person families of husband, wife, and two children—who participated in the 1992 Consumer Expenditure Survey—depending on their income. Dividing these families into five income groups, one finds the higher the income group, the older are its families. The reference person is about 35 years old in the under \$20,000 group compared to almost 43 in the \$80,000 and over group. Children also tend to be older in higher income families. Both children are under 6 years of age in almost 30 percent of the families in the lowest income group compared to under 12 percent in the highest income group. On the other hand, about 30 percent of the families in the two highest income groups have a child over 17 years of age as opposed to less than 15 percent for families in the two lowest income groups.

An increasingly prominent focal point of public policy research is the family. As a tool to assess the influence of proposed social and economic measures, the Consumer Expenditure Survey offers insights on the economic behavior of families by tracking household spending. To analyze spending patterns of these four-person families, expenditures on selected categories have been converted into the relative share those expenditures make up of total spending.

A look at the 1992 data shows that as income increases so do the average number of earners. Families with pre-tax incomes of under \$20,000 contained an average of 1.6 earners, indicating that many of the families in the lowest income category have more than one breadwinner in

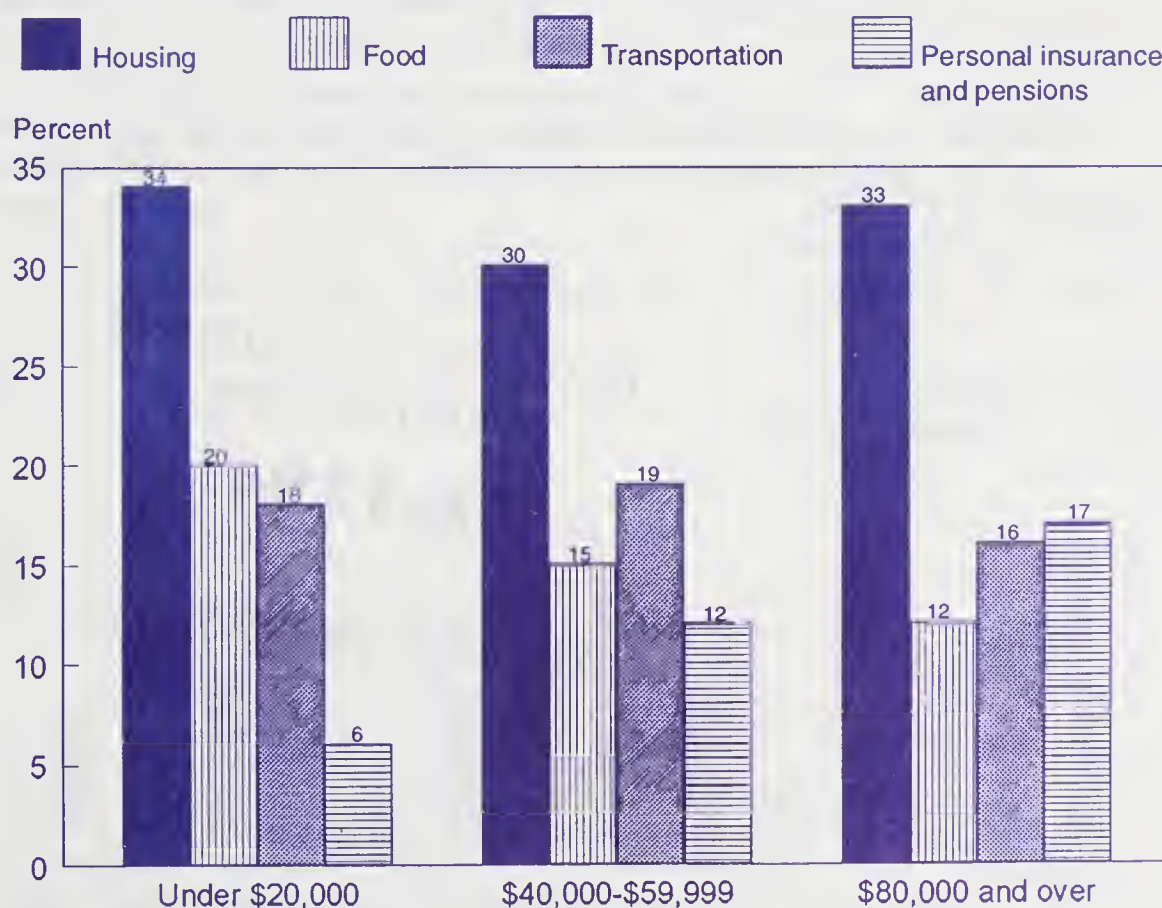
the household. At the same time, children in the highest income families often are employed, as the average number of earners in that group is 2.4, implying many families have three or four earners.

In addition, over 30 percent of the families in the lowest income group contain reference persons who had not graduated from high school, while 10 percent of the reference persons in this group were college graduates. In the \$40,000-\$60,000 income group, 7 percent of the reference persons were without a high school degree, but over 32 percent had graduated from college. Only 2 percent of the reference persons in the highest income group did not have a high school diploma, while

67 percent had earned a college degree.

Families also apportion a larger share of outlays to provide for future needs as income increases. Retirement, pensions, and Social Security account for about 4 percent of total monetary outlays for families in the lowest income group, about 10 percent for the next two income groups, and about 15 percent for the two highest income groups. Higher income families have more earners, on average, who may each be subject to payroll withholding for Social Security. Contributions to pension or retirement plans are often directly deducted as a fixed percentage from gross pay, and thus, increase with income. Contributions to IRA's and Keogh plans also increase

Difference in spending patterns among selected income groups by shares of total spending for major categories, two-parent, two-child families, 1992



Selected average annual expenditures and characteristics for two-parent, two-child families by income before taxes, 1992

Item	Under \$20,000	\$20,000 \$39,999	\$40,000- \$59,999	\$60,000- \$79,999	\$80,000 and over
Average:					
Income before taxes	\$12,987	\$30,374	\$49,001	\$61,710	\$124,980
Age of reference person	35.5	37.1	38.7	42.3	42.8
Number in family:					
Earners	1.6	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4
Vehicles	2.2	2.6	3.0	2.8	2.9
Percent :					
Homeowner	56	70	85	93	94
Less than high school graduate	32	15	7	5	2
College graduate or greater	10	18	32	47	67
Both children under 6	30	22	21	17	12
Both children 6-11	13	12	10	11	14
Both children over 17	7	5	7	13	14
Total expenditures	\$21,157	\$31,426	\$43,155	\$49,085	\$78,562
Food	4,314	5,262	6,487	6,919	9,125
Housing	7,257	9,465	13,130	15,820	26,265
Transportation	3,772	6,171	8,247	8,735	12,709
Personal insurance and pensions	1,166	3,401	5,128	7,730	13,740
All other expenses	4,648	7,127	10,163	9,881	16,724

sharply as income increases.

A popular image shows the four-person family living in a single-family home with a two-car garage. Indeed, these families do tend to be homeowners, with ownership rates rising rapidly from 56 percent in the under \$20,000 category to 94 percent in the highest category. These rates are from 6 to 12 percentage points higher than the rates for all families in these in-

come groups. In addition, the average number of vehicles owned is over two for all income groups.

The share of total expenditures devoted to housing—shelter, utilities, household operations, and housefurnishings and equipment—fluctuates in a narrow range of 30 to 34 percent among income groups, with the lowest and highest income groups at the top of this range. Shelter expenses,

composed of mortgage payments and rent, follow a similar pattern among the groups. On the other hand, the share given to utilities, fuels and public services, falls from about 9 percent for the under \$20,000 group to about 4 percent for the \$80,000 and over group.

Food expenditures consistently decline as a share of total expenditures as income increases, dropping from over 20 percent for the under \$20,000 income group to about 12 percent for the \$80,000 and over group. Virtually all of this decline is accounted for by a drop in the share of food at home. Surprisingly, the share for food away from home—primarily meals at restaurants, carry-outs, and vending machines—remains constant across income groups at about 4 percent of total spending.

For more information on the Bureau's Consumer Expenditure Survey, contact the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Branch of Information and Analysis, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Room 3985, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6900. Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577. This information is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission.

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What's Behind U.S. Competitiveness?

Competitiveness is assessed by many standards. Some analysts, including the Secretaries of Commerce and Labor, tend to think of it in broad terms such as trade, technology, investment, human capital, health, community concord, and high standards of living. The Council on Competitiveness, a private research group, assembles a large array of more quantitative indicators, including gauges of the standard of living, but supplemented by more strictly economic variables such as trade, productivity, and investment.

Price is basic to competitiveness

Although several of these factors should be considered simultaneously, a fundamental determinant of competitiveness is the relative price of a country's products. To be sure, other factors influence competitiveness, including the quality of the product, the timeliness of its delivery, and the flexibility needed to respond to changes in customers' requirements. Still, price is basic, particularly because measures of price frequently take into account changes in the quality of the product. Given the crucial role played by price, an analysis of factors determining price is important in understanding a country's ability to compete.

One such analysis relates labor costs (the total payments made by an employer for labor), the major component of input costs (in a value added framework), to a unit of product (i.e., output) and compares trends in this relationship across countries. This relationship is referred to as unit labor costs and is derived as the nominal cost of labor divided by real output. A comparison of trends in unit labor costs is more meaningful than a simple comparison of trends in wages or other compensation

measures because unit labor costs reflect the amount of labor used in the production process as well as the *price* of labor. The amount of labor used in production can vary, depending on changes in labor productivity.

It is important then to examine the link between productivity and unit labor costs. Unit labor costs is actually equivalent to the price of labor (compensation per hour) divided by labor productivity (output per hour). Further, the growth rate of unit labor costs equals the growth rate of compensation per hour less the growth rate of output per hour.

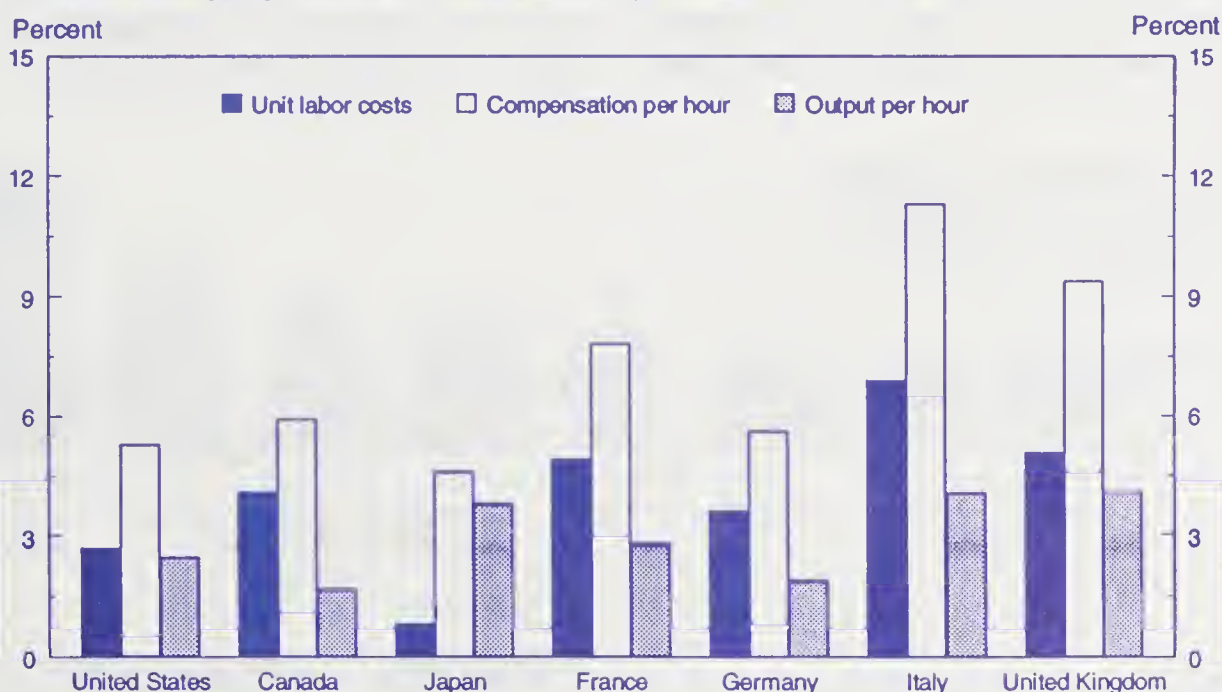
Starting with comparisons of productivity growth the discussion focuses on manufacturing. Chart 1 shows growth rates of manufacturing output per hour among a group of industrialized countries. The United States is third from last in this measure. Japan, France, the United Kingdom, and Italy all had productivity growth

rates higher than the United States. Thus, the competitiveness of our manufacturing sector based upon productivity growth alone seemed to have slipped relative to four of the countries.

However, growth in unit labor costs is a more meaningful indicator of change in competitive position because it accounts for growth in compensation per hour as well as productivity growth. Comparison of growth rates of unit labor costs in chart 1 tells a different story than the comparison of productivity growth rates. Italy had a growth rate of unit labor costs about 2½ times the U.S. rate, and the United Kingdom's rate was almost double ours. In fact, the growth rate of unit labor costs in the United States was the lowest of the countries, except for Japan's, indicating movement toward a *stronger*, rather than a weaker, U.S. competitive position.

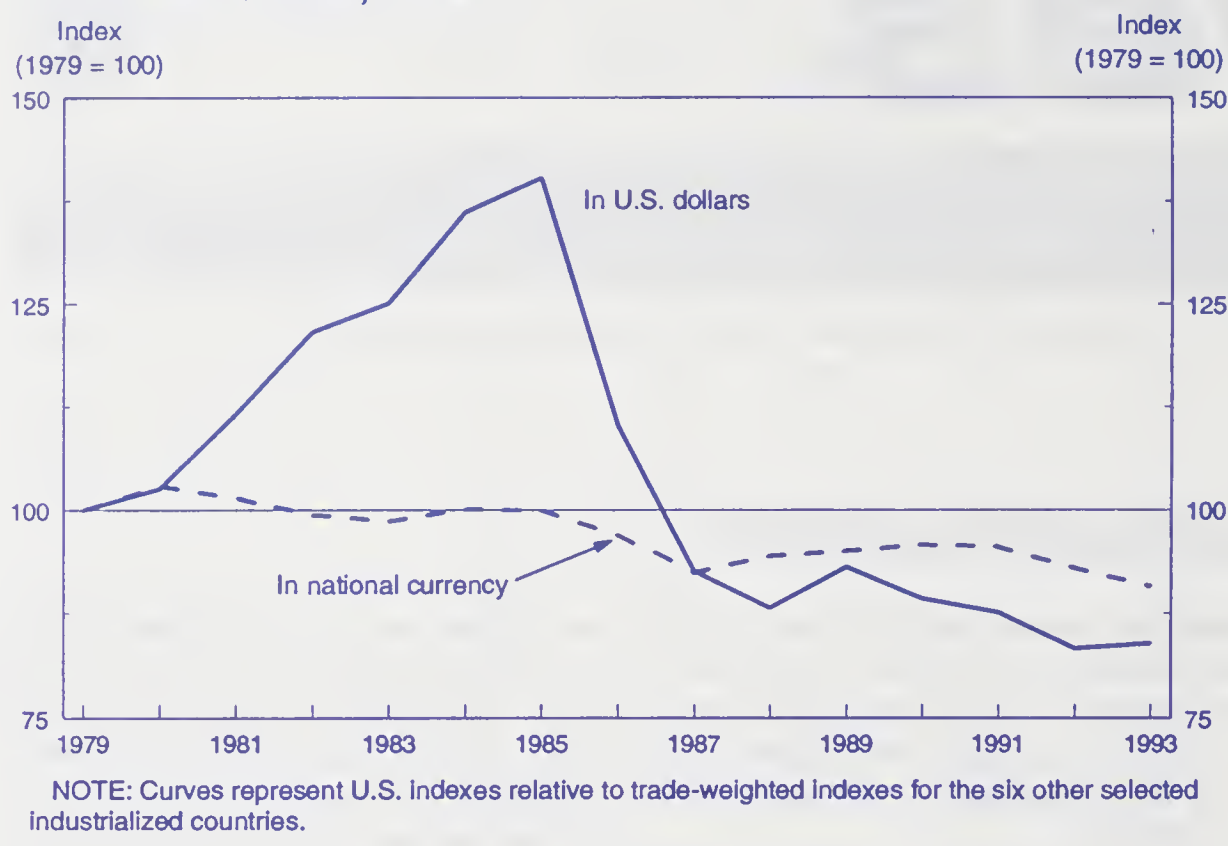
The favorable growth rate of unit labor costs in U.S. manufacturing resulted from

Chart 1. Average annual percent change in unit labor costs, compensation per hour, and output per hour in manufacturing, selected countries, 1979-93



NOTE: Unit labor costs and compensation per hour are based on each country's national currency.

Chart 2. Unit labor costs in U.S. manufacturing relative to those of other selected industrialized countries, 1979-93



a relatively slow growth rate in compensation per hour. Unit labor cost growth rates in the United Kingdom and Italy offer a further illustration of the offsetting effects of compensation per hour and output per hour. Both of these countries had stronger productivity growth than the United States. A much more rapid growth in hourly compensation in Italy and the United Kingdom, however, overwhelmed the effects of the better productivity performance, yielding higher growth rates in unit labor costs in both countries than in the United States.

The data for countries' unit labor costs and compensation per hour are valued in those countries' own currencies. In examining trends in competitiveness, it is vital to consider changes in foreign exchange rates, because trends in the competitiveness of a nation's products will depend both on changes in the prices of those prod-

ucts and on commercial exchange rates.

Between 1979 and 1985, the dollar appreciated relative to all of the foreign currencies. It then depreciated against virtually all currencies until 1988, at which point it halted its downward trend. Since 1988, the dollar has appreciated relative to some currencies and depreciated against others.

Using data on unit labor costs that have been adjusted for these trends in exchange rates, we may compare a country's position in both national currencies and U.S. dollars. The United States has one of the lower annual average growth rates of unit labor costs on both a national currency and a U.S. dollar basis, 2.7 percent. On the other hand, Japan moves dramatically from the lowest annual growth rate of unit labor costs in national currency, 0.8 percent, to the highest, 5.8 percent, based upon U.S. dollars; Germany moves from

third lowest, 3.6 percent, to second highest, 4.4 percent. All the other countries experienced lower unit labor cost growth rates on an exchange rate basis as their currencies depreciated between 1979 and 1993. The annual growth rates for unit labor costs on a national currency basis vs. a U.S. dollar basis were: Canada—4.1 vs. 3.4 percent; France—4.9 vs. 2.8 percent; Italy—6.9 vs. 2.1 percent; and the United Kingdom—5.1 vs. 2.5 percent.

The competitive position of the United States can be summarized by a comparison of U.S. unit labor costs to the unit labor costs of a composite competitor (chart 2). This composite is constructed by weighting the unit labor cost indexes of the competitors with weights reflecting the relative importance of each of the other countries to the United States in terms of trade in manufactured goods. An increase in the ratio of U.S. unit labor costs to competitors' costs implies slippage in the U.S. competitive position; a decrease in the ratio implies an improvement.

On a national currency basis, the United States maintained a relatively constant relationship with its competitors over the entire 1979-93 period, although with a modest gain in competitive advantage over the second part of the period. On an exchange-rate adjusted basis, however, the U.S. competitive position, which slipped sharply before 1985, recovered dramatically until 1987. At that point, it exceeded the 1979 position and has further improved since then.

For further information on the issues raised in this report contact Mark Sherwood at (202) 606-5781. Information in this report is available to the sensory impaired. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577.

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Outdoor Occupations Exhibit High Rates of Fatal Injuries

Rough seas, rugged terrain, and inclement weather are some of the life-threatening hazards facing workers who perform their jobs outdoors. Natural conditions such as these help explain why fishers and timber cutters and loggers, for example, posted unusually high rates of fatal work injuries—rates 25-30 times higher than the national figure of about 5 deadly injuries per 100,000 workers.

Besides fishing and timber cutting, nine other outdoor occupations exceeded the national fatality rate by a wide

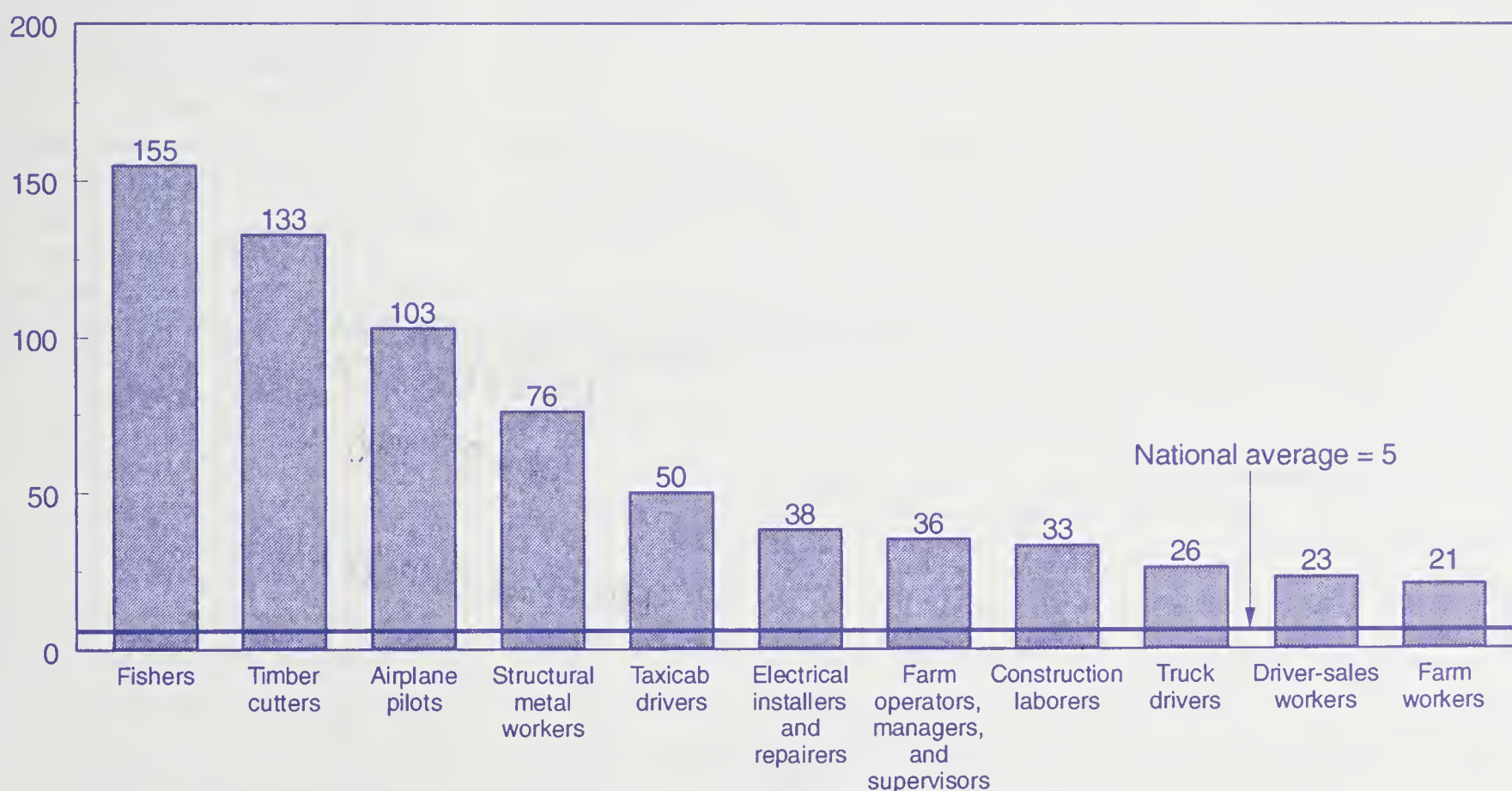
margin (see chart). That margin varied greatly among the nine, with truck drivers, driver-sales workers, farm workers and managers, construction laborers, and electrical power installers at 4 to 8 times the national fatality rate and cab drivers, structural metal erectors, and aircraft pilots at 10 to 20 times that rate. Only those occupations classified in the 1993 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries as having at least 30 fatalities and a fatality rate of 20 per 100,000 workers or higher are included. Together, these 11 job

categories made up a third of the nearly 6,300 fatalities reported in the 1993 BLS Census.

Interestingly, no jobs performed on factory floors were as “deadly,” although manufacturing activities commonly result in some of the highest rates of nonfatal injuries and illnesses resulting in work-days lost. The fatality rate for all manufacturing, in fact, was slightly below the national rate. In contrast, workers in agriculture, construction, and transportation are routinely exposed to the rigors of the outdoors, and their elevated rates of

Rate of fatal injury per 100,000 workers in "high risk" occupations, 1993

Fatality rate



SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, 1993

Occupations with high rates of fatal work injuries per 100,000 workers aged 16 years and older, 1993

Occupation	Fatalities per 100,000 employed	Number of fatalities	Major deadly event
Fishers	155	79	Boating mishap
Timber cutting and logging	133	124	Struck by tree
Airplane pilots and navigators	103	104	Air crash
Structural metal workers	76	34	Fall
Taxicab drivers and chauffeurs	50	113	Homicide
Electrical power installers and repairers	38	42	Electrocution
Farm operators, managers, and supervisors	36	430	Vehicular
Construction laborers	33	218	Fall, contact with objects
Truck drivers	26	731	Highway crash
Driver-sales workers	23	41	Highway crash
Farm workers	21	172	Vehicular

NOTE: "Fatality rate" is an experimental measure for workers 16 years and older. It is based on fatality counts by occupation for workers 16 years and older from the 1993 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries (the numerator) and occupational employment of civilians 16 years and older from the Current Population Survey, 1993 annual averages (the denominator). Also included in the denominator are resident Armed Forces counts by job from Department of Defense records.

both fatal and serious, nonfatal injuries appear to reflect this incremental risk. These three industry sectors, in fact, employed the vast majority of workers in 10 of the occupations with high rates of fatal injury. Agriculture, forestry, and fishing employed most fishers, timber cutters and loggers, farm operators, and farm workers; construction industries

included most structural metal workers, electrical power installers, and construction laborers; and transportation industries engaged most pilots, cab drivers, and truck drivers. The remaining occupation, driver-sales worker, was found primarily in wholesale and retail trade. The accompanying table provides

information on the principal ways in which workers in outdoor occupations were fatally injured. Transportation-related incidents were cited as the major deadly event for 6 of the 11 occupations. Other deadly events pointed up the potential dangers of harvesting trees, working at elevations and around power lines, and chauffeuring passengers when payment is made in cash.

For more information on the "who and how" of deadly injuries at work and a description of the methods and limits of measuring the risk of fatal work injuries, contact the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave. NE, Washington, DC 20212-0001. Telephone (202) 606-6175.

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Safer Construction Workplaces Evident During the Early 1990s

Construction workers build our Nation's highways and homes, erect its workplaces, and keep these structures in good repair.

In the process, these workers traditionally have faced a much higher risk of serious injury than workers on factory floors and at other work sites. Since the early 1970s, the construction industry's incidence of injuries and illnesses resulting in lost work time typically has exceeded the national rates by a wide margin—usually by more than 60 percent.

But construction's safety picture appears to have improved somewhat in the early 1990s, even though many of the industry's potentially dangerous working conditions (such as working at elevations, in uncertain weather, and under time constraints) still lurk. The accompanying chart shows a decline in the construction industry's rate of injuries and illnesses serious enough to require workers to either take time off or to lighten or restrict their workload for each of the years 1991-93. Its 1992 and 1993 rates (respectively, 5.8 and 5.5 per 100 equivalent full-time workers), in fact, were the lowest on record for the industry since the mid-1970s. Moreover, the sheer size of the 1991-93 rate declines helped narrow the persistent gap in serious injury and illness rates between it and the private sector as a whole. In 1990, the lost workday case rate in construction (6.7 per 100 workers) was 63 percent higher than the national rate (4.1 per 100 workers). In 1993, the corresponding rate gap was 45 percent higher (a construction rate of 5.5

compared with a 3.8 rate nationally), the smallest spread between the two ever recorded by BLS.

And in 1993, the rate gap nearly closed between construction and certain other hazardous industries. That year, the frequency of lost workday injuries and illnesses in construction (5.5 per 100 workers) differed little from the rate in manufacturing (5.3) or the rate in transportation and public utilities (5.4).

In the construction industry, injury rates and hours of work usually move in the same direction in a given year. But between 1992 and 1993, hours of work rose by 5.5 percent while the number of lost workdays cases remained about the same.

Injury and illness characteristics

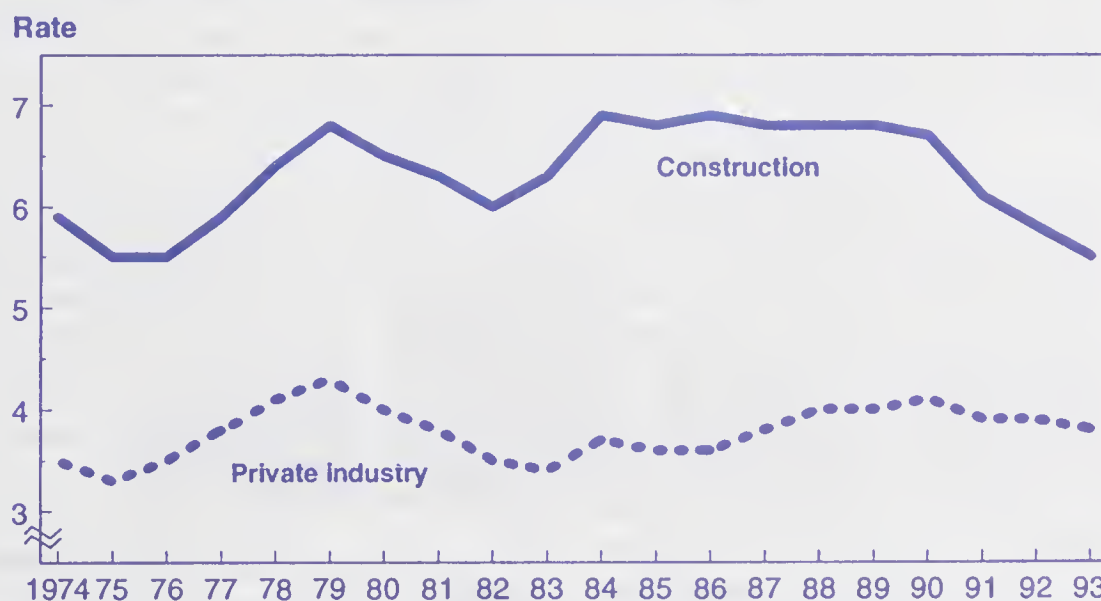
BLS recently began surveying the "who and how" of cases involving days

away from work in the construction industry and the number of days lost. In 1992, nearly 210,000 such incidents were reported, half of them requiring at least 7 days away from work to recuperate. (Because of limited resources, the characteristics of another 21,000 construction cases involving just restricted work activity were not studied in more detail.)

The accompanying table shows the most common disabling conditions sustained by construction workers and the leading ways in which these injuries and illnesses involving days away from work happened.

Serious "sprains and strains" was, by far, the principal physical characteristic of construction workers seriously injured, accounting for nearly two-fifths of the 210,000 cases reported in 1992. Such sprains commonly affected the back.

Injuries and illnesses involving lost worktime per 100 full-time workers in construction and all private industries, 1974-93



SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Surveys of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses

Injuries and illnesses in construction industries resulting in days away from work, selected characteristics, 1992

Disabling condition	Percent of total	Disabling event	Percent of total
All cases	100	All cases	100
Sprains, strains	38	Overexertion	23
Fractures	10	Struck by object	18
Cuts, lacerations	9	Fall to lower level	12
Bruises, contusions	8	Struck against object	8
Multiple injuries	3	Fall on same level	6
All other conditions	32	All other events	33

“Fractures,” “cuts, lacerations,” and “bruises, contusions” together composed another fourth of that case total.

Overexertion from lifting, pulling, or pushing heavy or unwieldy objects was the leading way in which disabling injury or illness occurred; such a disabling event was mentioned in nearly a fourth of the 1992 construction cases.

Next in frequency was being struck by an object, followed by falls to a lower level. Given the nature of the industry, falls from elevations were a much larger share of that industry’s case total (12 percent) than their share of all private industry cases (5 percent).

For more information on nonfatal incidents in construction and other

private industries covered by the Bureau’s Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses, contact the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE, Washington, DC 20212-0001. Telephone (202) 606-6180. Information on fatal work incidents is available from the Bureau’s Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, first conducted nationally in 1992. These data may be obtained from the same office. Telephone (202) 606-6175.

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U.S. Defense-Related Employment Retrenches

In the decade before 1987, a renewed concern in defense preparedness resulted in real defense spending rising sharply, reaching \$292 billion in 1987, a 6.4-percent share of gross domestic product (GDP). Defense-related employment also rose sharply in the decade, reaching 7.2 million jobs, or 6.2 percent of total employment in 1987. The largest increase in employment occurred in private-sector defense jobs, as the demand for new weapons systems outpaced the need for increased troop strength.

After 1987, the end of the Cold War and the need to begin bringing Federal budget deficits under control led to cutbacks in defense spending programs. Between 1987 and 1993, real defense spending declined by \$48.4 billion, dropping over this period from a 6.4-percent to a 4.7-percent share of GDP. Over the same period, defense-related employment also dropped—by 1.6 million jobs. Of this decline, about 40 percent, or 631,000 jobs, were in government—civilian Pentagon workers or in the uniformed armed services. The balance of the decline, 1 million jobs, occurred among workers in the private sector and in the nondefense portion of government as spending programs began to atrophy. This was a relatively new phenomenon. In past defense cutbacks, the level of the armed forces had remained relatively constant while the largest cuts had been in spending on weapons systems. Thus the largest cuts in the past had generally always been in the private-sector portion of defense-related employment. In the current downsizing, military force levels were

also taking significant cuts, thus sharing more equally in defense-related employment drops.

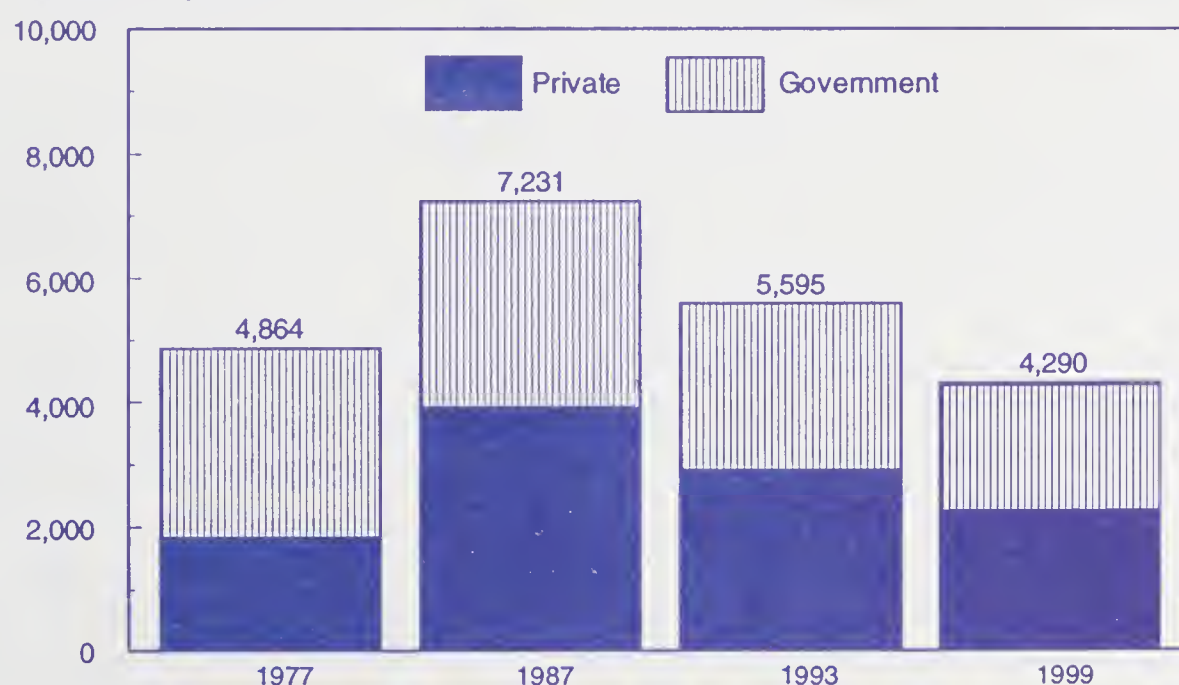
The United States has a stated goal of an armed forces level of 1.3 million persons by the late 1990s, accompanied by continued cutbacks in both Pentagon staff and spending. By 1999, BLS projects that defense-related employment will have fallen to 4.3 million, approximately 574,000 jobs fewer than the previous recent low in 1977 (see table). These estimates are based on declines of real defense purchases of goods and services to just below \$200 billion by 1999, a drop to 3.4 percent of GDP. The estimates, which are based on U.S. budget proposals and Defense Department projections, indicate that the halfway mark has been reached in terms of the expected levels of defense spending and the size of the armed

forces. The total cut in spending between 1987 and 1999 amounts to \$93 billion, of which \$48 billion had already taken place by 1993, leaving further cuts in real spending of \$45 billion to 1999. Employment related to these spending levels had declined by 1.6 million between 1987 and 1993, with an estimated 1.3 million still to go by 1999.

Unlike earlier cutbacks in defense spending, the largest preliminary cuts have been to standing armed forces levels. Although further cuts in the armed forces remain to be taken to reach the stated goals, the larger impact between 1993 and 1999 will be to lower defense-related employment demand in private industry. Ultimately, defense system purchases will slow, but only after the major effects on force levels have already been felt.

A related issue is the manner in which defense spending cuts are implemented.

Employment related to defense spending, 1977-93, and projected to 1999
Thousands of jobs



SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Defense-Related Employment by Major Sector and for Selected Industries, 1977, 1987, 1993, and Projected to 1999
 [thousands of jobs]

	1977	1987	1993	1999
Total Defense-related	4,863.7	7,231.4	5,595.3	4,289.8
Agriculture, mining, and construction	147.3	243.9	176.5	136.0
Manufacturing	1,088.0	1,857.4	1,206.5	899.0
Aircraft	123.9	192.5	111.9	78.6
Ship building and repairing	82.9	101.7	82.3	55.3
Guided missiles and space vehicles	44.2	116.6	76.3	53.7
Aircraft and missile parts	34.7	98.2	82.4	64.4
Aircraft and missile engines	64.4	108.7	64.6	47.5
Search and navigation equipment	71.0	119.2	59.1	43.3
Communications equipment	37.8	67.3	42.2	31.1
Miscellaneous electronic components	38.7	83.2	47.8	36.8
Ammunition and ordnance	18.6	37.8	27.0	18.2
Transportation, Communications, and Public Utilities	159.8	273.4	200.9	156.5
Trucking and warehousing	65.3	112.0	82.0	64.4
Other Service-Producing	424.0	1,504.6	1,306.7	1,046.7
Wholesale trade	115.2	223.2	162.7	124.1
Personnel supply services	9.3	157.6	163.2	129.0
Services to buildings	21.4	92.4	89.7	63.7
Eating and drinking places	47.4	124.7	88.0	63.6
Retail trade	41.3	148.9	124.2	107.7
Research and testing services	0.0	159.5	155.3	139.3
Management and public relations	0.0	78.3	83.6	69.3
Hotels and other lodging places	42.4	71.2	59.1	45.0
Accounting and auditing services	13.8	42.7	37.7	29.2
Government	3,044.6	3,352.1	2,704.7	2,051.6
Uniformed armed forces	2,074.0	2,243.0	1,776.0	1,338.0
Civilian defense	938.0	1,049.0	885.0	679.0
Civilian nondefense	20.1	38.5	27.2	21.2
State & local	12.5	21.6	16.5	13.4

In many cases, this occurs by closing bases which are no longer needed or which can no longer be supported in light of declining force levels. Clearly such closures can have effects, some-

times severe, on the local communities surrounding the bases in question. In other cases, conversions of the bases to civilian uses have spurred new growth in the communities. The techniques used in

this study do not lend themselves to evaluating such local area issues, but consideration must be taken of them by those making use of these BLS estimates.

It is also important to note that cutbacks in employment related to defense spending do not necessarily translate into increases in the number of unemployed. Clearly, economic activity in other areas, such as increased spending by consumers or increased demand from foreign markets, can offset the lowered defense demand, resulting in growing employment in spite of the Defense Department cutbacks.

This report is part of a continuing series of analyses by the BLS Office of Employment Projections. It updates estimates in an April 1993 article in the Bureau's *Monthly Labor Review*. For further information, contact Norman C. Saunders at (202) 606-5723.

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Issues



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School Enrollment After Age 25

School enrollment has risen substantially among adults in recent years. This sometimes has been construed as recognition of the labor market rewards to higher levels of education, such as higher earnings and reduced risk of unemployment. Such rewards may have spurred school attendance of persons age 16 to 24, whose rate of school enrollment has also been on the rise. But findings from the Current Population Survey (CPS) that show an increase of 45 percent in the number of 25-to 64-year-olds attending school between 1978 and 1993, do not entirely reflect a trend toward lifelong learning among the group.

Indeed, the rapid rise in the number of older students only partially results from an increase in the likelihood of their being enrolled. Their school enrollment rate edged up only slightly, from 4.0 to 4.4 percent between 1978 and 1993. Seventy percent of the rise in school enrollment among adults reflects the now well documented ballooning of the adult population aged 25 to 64 resulting from the aging of the baby-boom generation. (See table 1.)

Who are they?

Increases have occurred in enrollment rates of women between the ages of 25 and 54. Since the late 1970's, women have made up the majority of older

students. From 1978 to 1993, the proportion of women aged 25 to 64 who were attending school climbed from 4.0 to 5.1 percent, while that for men slipped from 3.9 to 3.7 percent. (See table 1.)

Among age groups, 25-to 34-year-olds continued to have the highest enrollment rate (7.9 percent). That rate, however, was about the same in 1993 as it had been 15 years earlier. At the same time, there were small increases in enrollment rates among persons aged 35 to 44 (from 3.5 to 4.3 percent) and 45 to 54 (from 1.7 to 2.4 percent).

In 1993, adults who had college degrees or had completed some college were more likely to be enrolled than high school graduates or those with less education, as shown in the following

tabulation of enrollment rates by educational attainment:

Less than a high school diploma	0.7
High school graduates, no college	1.0
Some college or associate's degree	7.8
College graduates	5.8

Thus, those enrolled in school already tend to have higher levels of education. As the data on education would suggest, professionals and managers—occupations which tend to require higher levels of schooling—were overrepresented among adult students, while blue-collar workers were underrepresented. (See table 2.)

IN SUMMARY, while the number of persons aged 25 to 64 in school has risen dramatically, it is not clear they are reacting to labor market incentives to a much greater extent than before. The

Table 1. School enrollment by age and sex, October 1978 and 1993

Age	Enrolled in school (thousands)			Enrollment rate ¹		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1978						
Total, 25 to 64 years	4,013	1,902	2,113	4.0	3.9	4.0
25 to 34 years	2,649	1,428	1,222	8.0	8.8	7.1
35 to 44 years	845	300	546	3.5	2.6	4.4
45 to 54 years	395	132	263	1.7	1.2	2.2
55 to 64 years	124	42	82	.6	.4	.8
1993						
Total, 25 to 64 years	5,822	2,371	3,451	4.4	3.7	5.1
25 to 34 years	3,244	1,462	1,782	7.9	7.2	8.5
35 to 44 years	1,764	649	1,115	4.3	3.2	5.4
45 to 54 years	702	222	480	2.4	1.6	3.2
55 to 64 years	112	38	74	.5	.4	.7

¹ Proportion of the population enrolled in school.

Table 2. Percent distribution of employed persons 25 to 64 years old by occupation and school enrollment, October 1993

Occupation	Employed	
	Total	Enrolled
Total (thousands)	99,460	3,901
Percent	100.0	100.0
Managerial and professional specialty	30.0	43.2
Technical, sales, and administrative support	29.6	35.7
Service occupations	11.6	9.9
Precision production, craft, and repair	12.3	5.6
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	14.0	4.8
Farming, forestry, and fishing	2.5	.8

data indicate that most of the increase in the number of older persons enrolled in school between 1978 and 1993 results from a rise in the size of that population, not from rising rates of enrollment.

Technical note

Data on which this report is based are collected each October in a supplement to the CPS, a monthly survey of about 60,000 households, conducted by the

Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In the supplement, persons are asked about their school enrollment status. Data used in this report refer to enrollment in a regular school and do not include those who may be enrolled in a vocational school.

For more information on school enrollment after age 25, contact Randy E. Ilg, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. (202) 606-6378.

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Issues



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Displacement Spreads to Higher Paid Managers and Professionals

Managerial and professional workers have become increasingly vulnerable to job loss over the past decade. Workers in these occupations increased their share of all displacements from 13 percent between 1981 and 1983 to 24 percent between 1991 and 1993. In addition to an increase in the overall incidence of displacement, the earnings patterns of these displaced managers and professionals also were markedly different during the two periods.

This report examines the earnings profile of workers who have been displaced from professional and managerial jobs. The major finding is that a substantial shift in earnings profiles has occurred. In the early 1980s, those managers and professionals toward the bottom of the earnings distribution were disproportionately likely to be displaced. More recently, however, the earnings profile of the displaced is almost identical to that of employed managers and professionals.

Charts 1 and 2 compare the weekly earnings of the full-time jobs lost by managers and professionals to the earnings of all full-time wage and salary workers in these occupations. A disproportionate share of displaced managers and professionals were at the lower end of the earnings spectrum in 1981-83. (See chart 1.) For example, displaced workers were about twice as likely to have earned less than \$200 per week than were all managers and professionals. Ten years later, a marked change had occurred. The earnings pattern of

displaced workers in 1991-93 was remarkably similar to that for all full-time wage and salary workers as shown in chart 2. (Indeed, there is even some evidence of greater displacement at the higher earnings levels.) This suggests that displacement among managers and professionals during the 1990s occurred at roughly the same rate in all earnings groups rather than being concentrated at the lower end.

The impact of this shift in the patterns of displacement among managers and professionals also can be seen in the median earnings of the

displaced. In 1981-83, median weekly earnings were \$100 lower for displaced managers and professionals than for all full-time wage and salary workers in such occupations. In 1993, median earnings figures for the two groups were virtually identical.

These changes in the earnings patterns of displaced workers could reflect a change in the mix of occupations where displacement occurred between the two periods or changes in the risk of displacement for workers at different earnings levels within specific occupations. In either case, in the 1990s, even for managers and

Chart 1. Weekly earnings distributions of employed (1983) and displaced (1981-83) full-time managers and professionals



NOTE: Data are 1983 annual averages for employed full-time managers and professionals and 1981-83 averages for displaced managers and professionals.

Chart 2. Weekly earnings distributions of employed (1993) and displaced (1991-93) full-time managers and professionals



professionals, being at the top of the earnings ladder appears to provide less protection than it once did when budgets become leaner.

Technical Note

The data in this report were collected in special supplements to the Current

Population Survey (CPS) in January 1984 and February 1994. The CPS is a monthly survey of 60,000 households conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For the earlier period, the median usual weekly earnings for all full-time managers and professionals in 1983

were compared to the earnings of workers who were displaced between January 1981 and December 1983. Similarly, earnings for all full-time wage and salary workers in the managerial and professional specialty occupations in 1993 were compared to earnings of workers displaced between January 1991 and December 1993. For displaced workers, earnings were based on the job from which they were displaced. The figures are not adjusted for inflation; hence the earnings intervals used for the two periods are different. For both periods, earnings intervals were grouped to avoid having cells with estimates too low to be reliable.

For more information on earnings of displaced managers and professionals, contact Bill Deming, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. (202) 606-6378.

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Long-term Unemployment Remains High During Recovery

Long-term joblessness usually rises sharply throughout recessions and has tended to drop just as sharply during recoveries. Not so in the most recent recession-recovery cycle. While the share of the unemployed who had been jobless for 6 months or more rose quickly through the 1990-91 recession, there was only a very slow downward drift subsequently. (See chart.)

After reaching a peak of 20.6 percent in 1992, the proportion of the unemployed who had been out of work for 6 months or longer had declined only 2.5 percentage points by mid-1995. Among some worker groups—youths, blacks, and service workers—there had been no recovery at all. (See table.) In contrast, after peaking at 23.9 percent in 1983, long-term joblessness as a share of total unemployment dropped 9 ½ percentage points by 1986. Long-term joblessness traced a similar pattern after the 1973-75 recession.

The stubbornly high share of workers unemployed for a long term persists in the face of general improvements in other labor market indicators. As of the second quarter of 1995, the unemployment rate, at 5.7 percent, had recovered 2 of its 2 ½-percentage point recessionary rise and the number of unemployed persons had also declined substantially. While several factors have been pointed to as potential explanations of the current pattern of long-term unemployment, none has provided a truly convincing rationale. For example,

- Some groups with the greatest extent of long-term unemployment—prime-

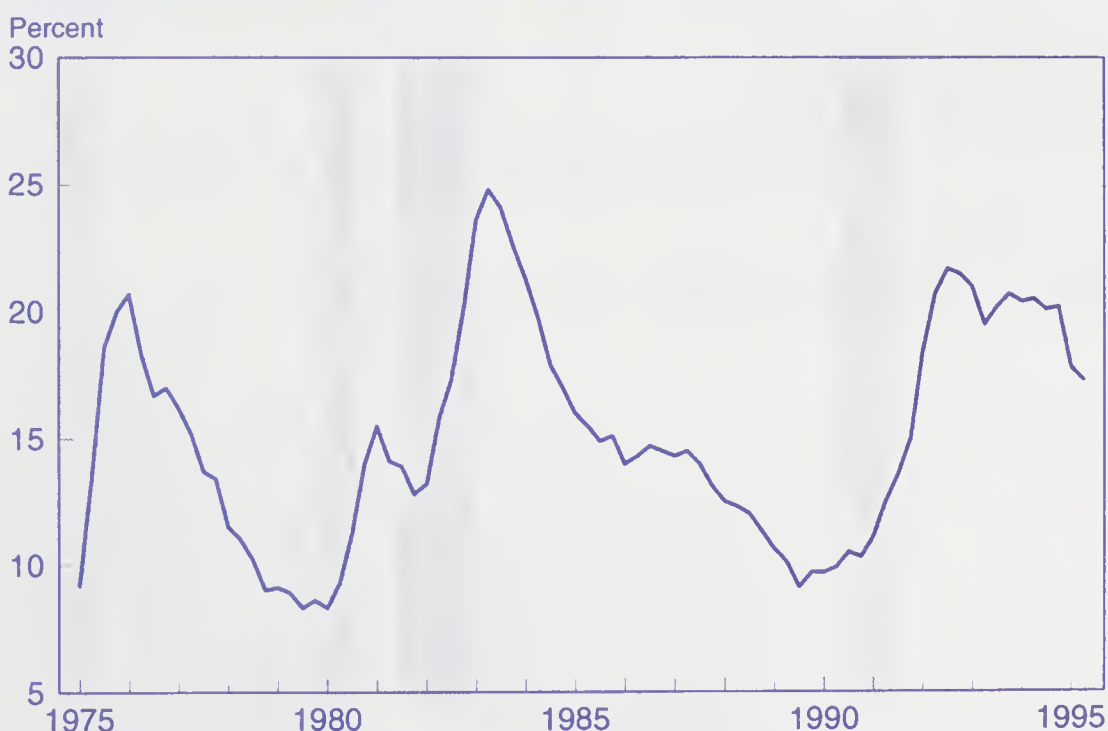
age workers, managers, professionals, permanent job losers—also happen to have been increasing as a share of total unemployment in recent years. But these shifts in the makeup of the unemployed account for only small portions of the difference in long-term unemployment compared with pre-recession levels. As examples, the changing age and occupational structures of the labor force, taken individually, served to increase the number of long-term jobless by only 7 and 1 percent, respectively, between 1989 and 1993.

- A major redesign of the CPS was implemented in January 1994 that

introduced a completely rewritten and automated questionnaire. It turns out that the effect of the survey changes on measures of overall duration of unemployment was negligible. Indeed, the proportion of long-term unemployed hovered around 20 percent for all of 1993 and 1994.

- Unemployment insurance (UI) benefits have long been recognized as a factor in sustaining long-term unemployment. The criteria for benefit eligibility, however, have generally become *stricter* in recent years. Furthermore, special programs which may be activated after 6 months of job search have been invoked only rarely

Persons unemployed 27 weeks and over as a percent of total unemployment, quarterly averages, seasonally adjusted, 1975-95



Note: Shaded areas represent recessions, as determined by the National Bureau of Economic Research.

Percent of the unemployed who were long-term (27 weeks or longer) during the last two major business cycles by selected characteristics, annual averages, selected years, 1979-95

Characteristic	1979	1983	1986	1989	1992	II 1995
Total	8.7	23.9	14.4	9.9	20.6	18.1
Men	10.2	28.2	17.3	12.5	23.0	19.5
Women	7.1	17.8	10.9	6.8	17.3	16.4
16-19 years	4.1	9.5	4.9	3.3	6.7	10.2
20-24 years	6.6	19.4	11.0	6.2	11.6	12.0
25-34 years	8.8	26.7	15.0	10.4	20.6	18.5
35-44 years	13.1	30.5	18.3	13.9	25.3	22.2
45-54 years	14.4	32.5	22.8	15.9	31.2	27.2
55-64 years	17.2	35.2	26.6	17.2	35.8	27.0
65 years and older	14.4	27.2	15.4	13.2	34.1	24.1
White	7.8	23.0	13.6	9.2	20.5	16.8
Black	11.5	27.4	17.3	12.2	21.1	21.2
Managerial and professional specialty	-	24.0	14.9	11.9	29.0	20.4
Technical, sales, and administrative support	-	20.6	11.8	8.1	21.8	17.8
Service occupations	-	20.3	13.8	8.9	16.0	16.5
Precision production, craft, and repair	-	29.3	18.4	12.9	24.0	18.7
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	-	30.8	17.3	11.6	22.5	18.6

Dash indicates data not available.

NOTE: Seasonally adjusted data are not available for the detailed categories shown in this table. For this analysis, then, annual averages are shown for the year in which *overall* long-term unemployment reached its cyclical high and low points. The years 1983 and 1992 represent the peak periods of long-term unemployment; 1979 and 1989 represent the series low points; and 1986 and 1995 (second quarter) are each 3 years following the series high.

in non-recession years. As of the second quarter of 1995, only Alaska and Rhode Island were disbursing unemployment payments under extended benefits programs. Nevertheless, data from the Employment and Training Administration on recipients of UI compensation show a pattern comparable to that revealed

by CPS data—an unusually large number of unemployed who have been receiving benefits for as long as 6 months.

Conclusion

There is no simple explanation for the pattern of long-term unemployment seen in this recent business cycle. The

participation of workers in virtually all demographic, industry, and occupational groups in these changes suggests the possibility of some fundamental difference between this and previous expansions, either on the demand side or in workers’ approach to job search.

Data for this report were derived from the Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly sample survey of some 60,000 households conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For more information on trends in unemployment in recent business cycles, see Jennifer M. Gardner, “The 1990-91 recession: how bad was the labor market?” and Randy E. Ilg, “Long-term unemployment in recent recessions,” both in the June 1994 *Monthly Labor Review*. For additional information on unemployment duration, and for a technical description of the revised CPS, contact Sharon R. Cohany, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C. 20212 (202) 606-6378.

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New Data Highlight Gravity of Construction Falls

Falls sound an especially ominous note of human fragility in the construction industry, which employed about half the Nation's 661 workers who fell to their death in 1994. Falls to a lower level, in fact, led all other ways in which construction workers were fatally injured that year. They far outdistanced fatal highway incidents—which ranked first in nationwide workplace deaths—and electrocutions, another fatal risk that construction workers face much more often than do workers in other industries.¹

The BLS nationwide Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries counted 330 fatal falls among the 1,027 deaths in the construction industry reported in 1994. Falls made up nearly a third of construction fatalities, compared to a tenth of all fatal work injuries nationwide that year. The accompanying table shows that falls from a roof or from a scaffold or other temporary platform together made up slightly more than half of the 330 fatal construction falls. Another fifth were attributable to falls from a ladder or from a building girder or other structural steel member. Falls from elevations accounted for about half or more of the 1994 fatality totals for certain construction trades, including roofers, structural metal workers, carpenters, and painters.

¹ See chart for distribution of construction fatalities among six broad categories of work-related events and exposures. Where appropriate, the chart also depicts the *leading* event of a broad category, for example, the important sub-category "highway incidents" appears separately within the bar marked "transportation incidents."

Other falls at work

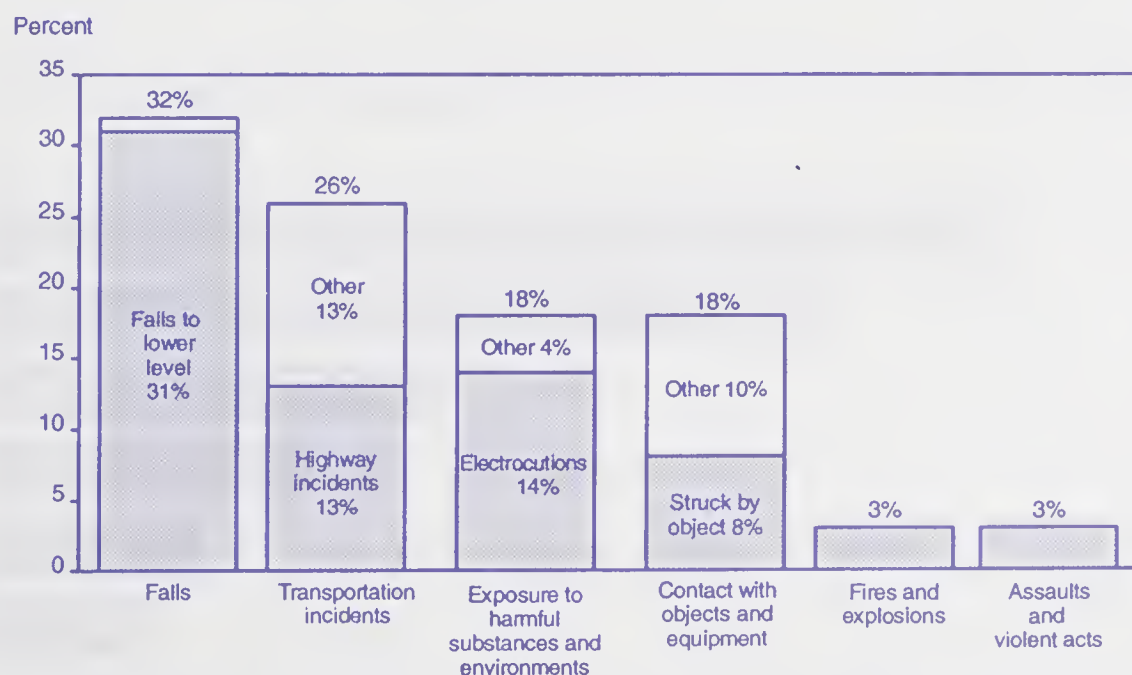
Besides profiling fatal falls, BLS recently began surveying the number of serious, nonfatal falls in private workplaces that required injured wage and salary workers to take off a workday or more. In 1993, the latest year for which such data are available, nearly 42,000 disabling falls in the construction industry were reported; they required a median of 14 recuperation days away from work. That year, about 1 in every 100 private construction workers sustained a disabling fall, double the national incidence rate for such occurrences.

Though disabling and fatal falls commonly originate from elevations, the object from which workers fall can differ markedly. Fall from a ladder, for example, was by far the most common

type of elevated fall resulting in lost worktime, while most fatal falls originated from a roof or scaffold. Disabling falls, moreover, commonly occurred on the same level, say ground or walkway, that supported the construction worker at the inception of the fall. Fatal falls on the same level, by contrast, were uncommon. (See table.)

Relatively lengthy periods of recuperation reflect the hazardous nature of construction falls. The 14-day median for disabling construction falls was twice the typical absence required for falls in all private industry. Part of the difference reflects certain types of falls, found disproportionately in construction, that result in especially lengthy absences, such as falls from a roof or a scaffold. Even the same type of fall, however, often requires a relatively lengthy

How construction workers were fatally injured, 1994



SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, 1994

Fatal and disabling falls in the construction industry, 1993-94

Type of construction fall	Percent distribution		Median workdays lost from disabling falls ²
	Fatal falls ¹ (n=330)	Disabling falls ² (n=41,800)	
All falls	100	100	14 days
Fall to lower level	96	57	17
Down stairs or steps	1	4	12
From floor, dock, or ground level	3	3	11
From ladder	14	20	15
From roof	32	7	33
From scaffold, staging	21	8	21
From building girder or other structural steel member	8	1	28
From nonmoving vehicle	3	6	11
Fall on same level	3	37	10
Other or unspecified	1	6	-

¹ Based on data from the 1994 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, which covered all construction workers—wage and salaried, self employed, and family members—in the private and public sectors.

² Based on data from the 1993 BLS Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses, which covered just wage and salaried workers in private construction industries. Disabling falls are those that result in lost worktime. Median days away from work is the point at which half those cases involved more days and half involved fewer days. Dash indicates that a median was not computed.

recuperation in construction, for example, a median absence of 15 days for ladder falls in that industry compared with a 10-day median for the same type of fall in private industry as a whole.

Data for this report were derived from the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries and its companion Survey of Nonfatal Occupational Injuries and Illnesses. For more information on these programs, contact the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave. NE., Room 3180, Washington DC 20212, (202) 606-6175.

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Spending Patterns and Other Characteristics of Families Receiving Public Assistance

Families receiving various types and combinations of public assistance allocated their spending among categories of goods and services much differently than families not receiving such assistance. For example, food and housing comprised almost 60 percent of annual expenditures by recipient families, significantly more than the 47-percent share of such expenditures by nonrecipient families. In addition, recipient families spent only half as much, on average, as nonrecipient families.

Total expenditures averaged just over \$15,000 in 1992-93 for families receiving assistance, compared to about \$30,000 for those not receiving assistance. About three-fifths of total spending was allocated to food (22 percent) and housing (37 percent) by recipient families. Transportation took up the next largest share, about 15 percent. The shares of total spending apportioned to entertainment, apparel, health care, and personal insurance and pensions ranged between 4 and 5 percent each and, except for insurance and pension expenditures, were not significantly different from those of nonrecipient families. Personal insurance and pension outlays by recipient families (5.5 percent) were about half of those made by nonrecipient families (10.6 percent). The remaining expenditure categories—alcoholic beverages, tobacco, personal care, reading, education, cash contributions, and Other

miscellaneous expenditures—made up just over 6 percent of total spending.

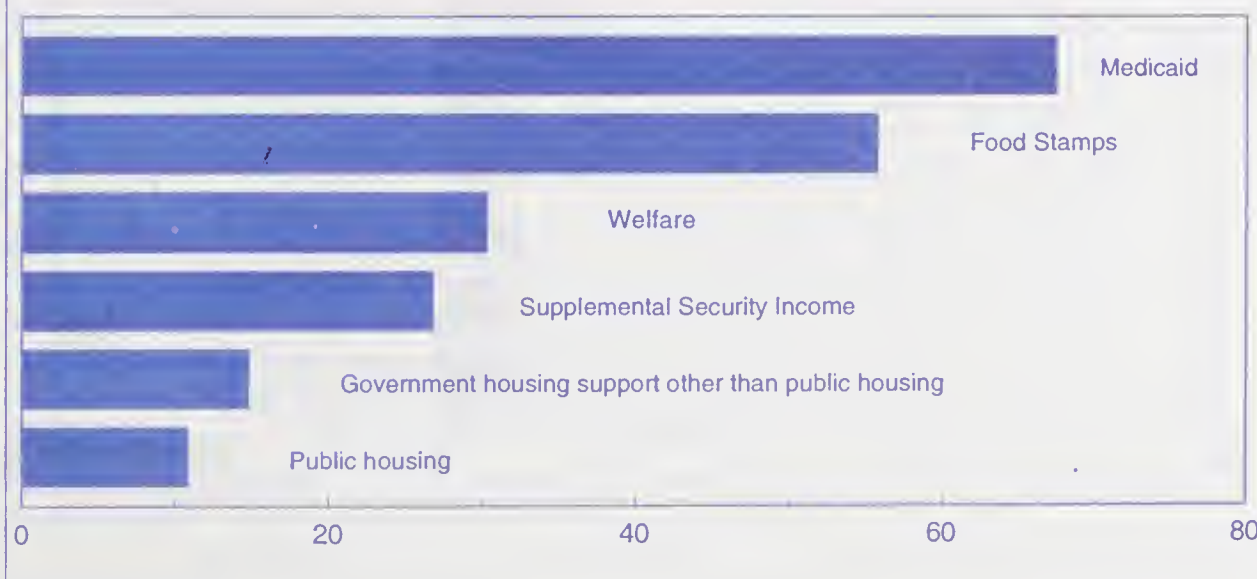
Among nonrecipient families, housing and transportation together accounted for a little over 50 percent of total spending with food, the next largest category, accounting for another 15 percent. Almost 27 percent of spending was directed to health care, entertainment, apparel, and personal insurance and pensions. Personal insurance and pensions alone comprised over 10 percent of total spending. All other expenditures made up the final 7 percent of spending.

Families receiving assistance were not only different in expenditure patterns than nonrecipients but in demographic makeup and other characteristics as well. Recipient families were larger and had more children under 18. Many included working members and owned a vehicle—the

average number of earners and vehicles was about one in these families. Not surprisingly, families not receiving assistance had more than one earner, on average, and owned twice as many vehicles as families receiving assistance.

The ratio of homeowners to renters for recipient families was essentially the reverse of the ratio for nonrecipient families. About two-thirds of recipient families rented, while two-thirds of nonrecipient families owned their own homes. Of families receiving assistance, about 30 percent were black compared to about 8 percent of nonrecipient families. Husband-wife families comprised the majority of nonrecipient families, compared to under one-third of families receiving assistance. In contrast, single parent families represented over 20 percent of the recipient group versus only 4 percent of nonrecipients. Single person households made up 30 percent of

Percent of families receiving public assistance by type of assistance, 1992-93



families not receiving assistance and about 25 percent of those receiving assistance.

The average age of the reference person in recipient families was just over 46 years old, only slightly younger than the average of 48 years old for all other families. About a third of the reference persons among recipient families were under 35 years old compared to 27 percent among nonrecipient families. Yet about 21 percent of recipient and nonrecipient families were headed by a reference person aged 65 or older.

Recipient families obtained multiple forms of assistance. For instance, some received just medicaid, while others received welfare, public housing, and food stamps, or some other combination of these assistance programs. No one combination dominated, however. The most common was medicaid only which was reported by almost 15 percent of recipient families. Welfare, food stamps, and medicaid was the next most frequent combination, at 11 percent. Families receiving food stamps and medicaid, or food stamps only each represented about 9 percent of the families. No other combination was received by more than about 6 percent of recipient families. Overall, medicaid appeared as a source of assistance for over two-thirds of these families, while food stamps was reported by over one-half. Housing assistance

was received least often with public housing reported by just under 11 percent of recipient families and government housing support other than public housing reported by about 15 percent of such families.

Families in the survey were classified as receiving public assistance if they met any of three criteria: The family reported receiving welfare, Supplemental Security Income, or food stamps; the family lived in public housing or received government housing subsidies, such as rent supplements or reduced-interest-rate home loans; or any member of the family was enrolled in medicaid.¹ The findings in this report are from the 1992-93 Consumer Expenditure Survey.

For more information on the Bureau's Consumer Expenditure Survey, contact the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Branch of Information and Analysis, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Room 3985, 2 Massachusetts Ave., NE, Washington, DC 20212-0001, (202) 606-6900. Information in this report is

¹ The Consumer Expenditure Survey collects data on the dollar value of food stamps received. Food stamps are included in total income for the family. With respect to public housing and other government housing support, the Survey ascertains only that the family resides in a public housing project or that it incurs lower housing costs because a government entity is paying part of the cost. There is no imputation of the value of housing subsidies.

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Table 1. Selected family expenditures and characteristics by receipt of public assistance, 1992-93

Item	Family receives assistance	Family receives no assistance
Total expenditures ...	\$15,304	\$29,800
Food	3,425	4,545
Housing	5,676	9,420
Transportation	2,347	5,739
Apparel	760	1,447
Health care	658	1,738
Entertainment	627	1,602
Personal insurance and pensions	836	3,164
All other expenses	976	2,146
Percent:		
Female	58.9	32.4
Black	30.1	8.4
Homeowner	29.4	67.7
Husband/wife families	32.7	56.0
Single parent, at least one child under 18	22.0	4.3
Single person	25.0	29.5
Age of reference person	46.4	47.9
Number of:		
Persons	3.0	2.4
Children under 18	1.3	.6
Vehicles	1.0	2.1
Earners9	1.4

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Issues



in Labor Statistics

U.S. Department of Labor
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Health and Social Services Provide Rich Soil for New Occupations

The health and social services industries are, between them, the leading employers in 16 of the 25 emerging occupations identified by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' 1993 Occupational Employment Statistics survey. (See chart.) Such emerging occupations may be entirely new or may be occupations with employment increasing from very low levels.

For example, emerging health care management occupations were reported very frequently. Among these occupations are *discharge coordinators and planners* who arrange for medical care after a hospital stay and *medical and mental health case managers* who assess patient needs and develop plans to ensure that the patient receives appropriate care.

In addition, as more health care is financed by insurance or other third party payers, more people are needed to do the paperwork. For this, *reimbursement specialists* process the forms necessary to receive reimbursement; *intake coordinators* process the paperwork necessary for admission of new patients and may handle inquiries from prospective patients. *Medical coders* read medical documents and use specialized software to code patient diagnostic and treatment data.

As health maintenance organizations (HMO's) gain in popularity and contract with more doctors, hospitals, laboratories, and clinics to provide services for their members, *provider relations representatives* establish and maintain relations between health care providers and purchasers. *Utilization review coordinators* are nurses employed by HMOs to assess the extent to which medical services are provided in compliance with established medical and financial standards, and who screen admissions for medical necessity.

In the social services, emerging occupations often appear in the area where health care and social services intersect. (See exhibit.) For example, *activity directors* plan, coordinate, and supervise activities for groups

in nursing homes, hospitals, residential care facilities, and senior citizen centers. *Adult day care coordinators, adult day care directors, and adult day care supervisors* coordinate and supervise day care for elderly persons in residential care facilities or senior citizen centers. *Art and music therapists* use these mediums in a physical or mental therapy program for disabled or emotionally disturbed persons, or for senior citizens or others in residential care settings.

Also in social services, *bereavement counselors, bereavement coordinators, and bereavement followup workers* provide grief counseling to families or individuals after the death of a loved one. *Job coaches* teach job duties to disabled clients at the work site or at a training center. They act as on-the-job training assistants until the client achieves job proficiency, and they may provide job placement services for the client or negotiate

work-related issues with the employer.

Changes taking place in businesses throughout the economy are having an impact on the way work is being done at all levels of the corporate hierarchy. As a result, emerging occupations are being reported in many fields, including:

- "800" or product information numbers are manned by *customer service representatives* and *customer support staff* to handle customers' inquiries, or complaints, give price quotations, investigate errors, and perform order entry tasks.
- Changes in the banking industry include installing more automatic teller machines (ATM's) and encouraging customers to use them. The number of ATM's has grown sufficiently to include *ATM servicers* and *ATM clerks* as emerging positions.

Number of emerging occupations by industry, 1993

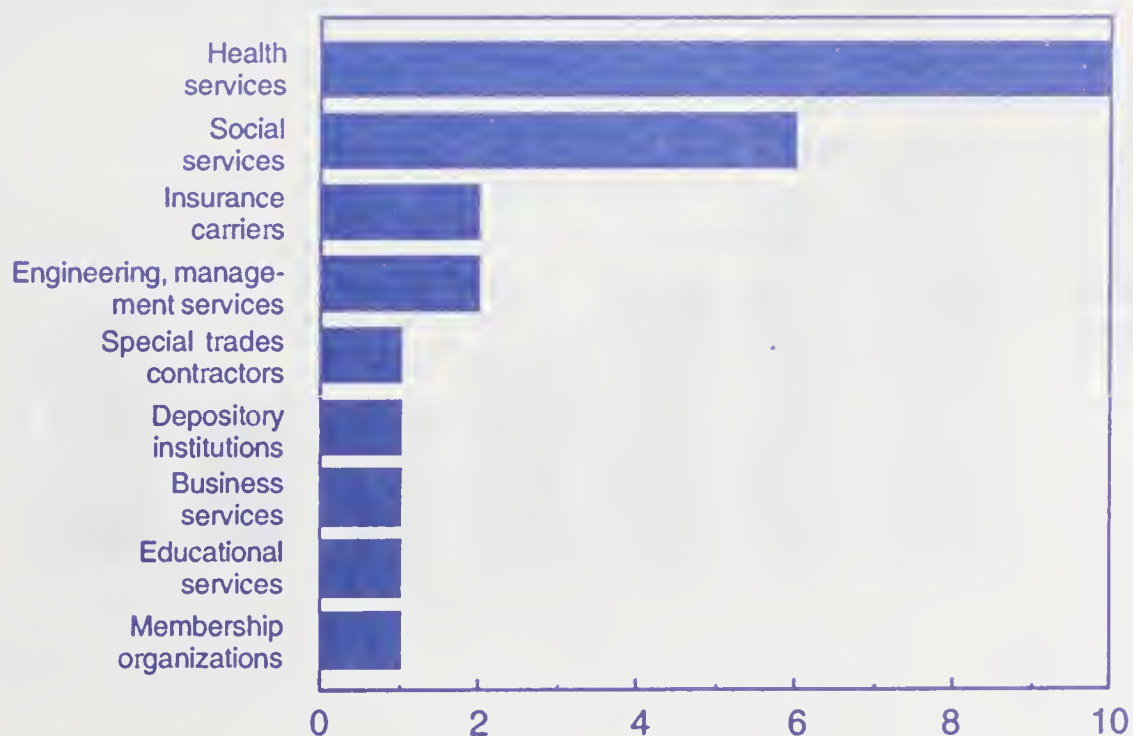


Exhibit 1. Emerging occupations by industry, 1993

Emerging occupation	Industries which reported the emerging occupation most frequently	Emerging occupation	Industries which reported the emerging occupation most frequently
Customer service representatives	Insurance carriers Business services	Desktop publishing personnel	Educational services Membership organizations
Quality assurance directors	Health services Engineering, management services	Intake coordinators	Social services Health services
Reimbursement specialists	Health services Insurance carriers	Job coach	Social services
LAN/MIS managers	Social services Membership organizations	Adult day care personnel	Social services Health services
Development directors	Social services Educational services	Art, music therapists	Health services Social services
Office managers	Health services Building materials, hardware	ATM servicers	Depository institutions Business services
Utilization review coordinators	Health services Insurance carriers	Provider relations representatives	Insurance carriers Engineering, management services
Hazardous materials removal workers	Special trades contractors Engineering, management services	Air monitoring technicians	Engineering, management services Health services
Case managers	Health services Social services	Bereavement counselors	Health services Personal services
Telecommunications managers	Business services Educational services	GIS specialists	Engineering, management services Membership organizations
Activity directors	Health services Real estate	Discharge planners	Health services Social services
Meeting planners	Membership organizations Hotels and lodging places	Qualified mental retardation professional	Social services Health services
		Medical coders	Health services Engineering, management services

- More powerful, less expensive computers, software, printers and related equipment allow firms to produce documents in-house and on demand. Reflecting this trend, *desktop publishing specialists and operators* are emerging occupations.
 - *Geographic information systems (GIS) specialists* design and maintain geographic databases and perform spatial analysis and image processing using geographic information systems “desktop mapping” software.
- Budgets for voice, data, and image communications networks are increasing. *Telecommunications managers and specialists* are responsible for the design, development, and/or administration of these networks.
 - A quality movement is sweeping the Nation. *Quality assurance directors* and *quality assurance coordinators* test for product quality and consistency, administer quality management programs, and formulate plans for quality improvement.
- As firms respond to concerns for worker safety and environmental protection, several technical occupations are emerging, including *air monitoring technicians* and *air quality technicians*. These employees collect air samples from construction sites, businesses, hospitals, schools, or other sites. Other occupations related to increased concern for the environment include *hazardous materials removal workers* and *field technicians*, who remove, pack, transport, and/or dispose of hazardous materials.

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Older Workers' Injuries Entail Lengthy Absences From Work

The 10 million Americans aged 55 years and over who work for wages and salaries in the private sector are a third less likely than are younger workers to be hurt seriously enough to lose worktime. But when they are seriously injured, older workers typically require 2 weeks to recover before returning to work, twice the recuperation time younger workers need.

The duration of absence from work due to a work injury doubles from a median of 4 or 5 days for injuries to workers under age 35 to a 10-day median for those involving workers 55 years and older (see chart).¹ At least two factors contribute to longer recuperation periods for older workers.

First, they sustain especially disabling conditions, such as broken bones and multiple injuries, more often than younger workers do. Fractures, for example, made up 11 percent of injuries suffered by workers 55 years and older, compared with about 5 percent for workers under age 55. Second, even the same disabling condition

required a longer recuperation for older workers. For example, their fractures resulted in a median absence of 30 days compared with 18 days for younger workers.

Examining ways that older workers were disabled on the job also provides clues to their relatively lengthy absences from work. They were most commonly disabled by a fall to the floor or other surface that had supported them prior to the fall. Such falls accounted for 17 percent of the 1993 case total for workers 55 years and over, compared with 8 percent for younger workers. (See table.) Further, older workers take longer to return to work after such falls (a median of 11 days) than do younger workers (6 days). The difference in injury duration partly

reflects how often such falls result in fractures: about a fourth of the time for older workers while only in about an eighth of the cases do younger workers sustain fractures from falls. Moreover, older workers took 35 days to recover from a fracture sustained by falling to the floor or other non-elevated surfaces, compared with 25 days for workers under age 55.

Other major injuries also resulted in longer absences from work for older workers than for younger ones. The accompanying table shows, for example, that workers 55 years and older typically required 10 or 11 days to recuperate from overexertion injuries incurred while maneuvering objects, compared with 6 or 7 days for younger workers. Absences also

¹ Median days away from work—the key measure of injury duration used here—designates the point at which half the total cases for the category studied involved more days and half involved fewer days. In this summary, the term “injury” also covers a relatively small number (117,000) of “illnesses,” reported among workers of all ages sustaining some 2 million cases with days away from work in 1993.

Median number of workdays lost due to work injury or illness by age, 1993



SOURCE: BLS, Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses—cases involving days away from work

Common disabling events resulting in lost worktime by age group, 1993

Disabling event ¹	Percent distribution		Median days lost ³	
	Workers, 55 years and over ²	Workers, under 55 years ²	Workers, 55 years and over	Workers, under 55 years
All events	100	100	10 days	5 days
Fall to floor, walkway, ground, or other surface	17	8	11	6
Overexertion while lifting object	13	17	11	6
Struck against stationary object	5	4	5	3
Struck by falling object	4	5	7	4
Bending, climbing, crawling, reaching, twisting	4	4	7	5
Overexertion in pulling or pushing object	4	4	10	7
Struck by swinging or slipping object (e.g., knife)	3	4	6	3
Overexertion in holding, carrying, turning, or wielding object	3	3	10	6
All other events	48	51	—	—

¹ Based on 3-digit categories stipulated in the BLS Event or Exposure classification structure used to code cases with days away from work.

² About 170,000 days-away-from-work cases were reported for workers, 55 years and over and about 2,031,000 cases for workers under

age 55. Excluded from this table were about 52,000 cases for which age of worker was not available.

³ The median designates the point at which half the cases for the age group involved more days and half involved fewer days. Dash indicates that a median was not computed.

lasted 2 or 3 days longer for older workers struck by falling, swinging, or slipping objects; striking against stationary objects; or bending, climbing, crawling, reaching, or twisting when such movement in itself was the source of injury.

The cost implications of severe injuries to older workers are especially troublesome for the future, given that their labor force growth rate of 3.3 percent a year is expected to be triple the annual rate for the total civilian labor force between 1994 and 2005. By year 2005, BLS estimates 15 percent of the labor force will be 55 years and over, compared with 12 percent in 1994.

Thus, older workers' share of all serious injuries, currently at 8 percent, is likely to increase by 2005, even though their risk of injury is relatively low.

Worker safety data

The Bureau's 1993 Survey of Nonfatal Occupational Injuries and Illnesses provided the information in this summary report on cases involving lost worktime, including age group, how the injury occurred, the incidence of fractures, and the duration of injury. A companion program, the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, shows that

older workers also face relatively high risks of fatal work injuries. For more information on these programs, contact the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2 Massachusetts Ave. NE., Room 3180, Washington DC 20212, (202) 606-6168.

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A Different Look at Part-time Employment

In 1995, about 6.5 million workers had a part-time job (or jobs) but were classified as full-time workers because their total workweek (at all jobs) was 35 hours or more. Most of these workers, 4.4 million, worked full time at a primary job and also held one or more part-time jobs. Persons who combined several part-time jobs to make up a full-time workweek accounted for about 15 percent of the total and a similar share combined jobs with varying hours.¹ (See table and chart.)

Workers within all three groups were more likely to be aged 25 to 54 than those classified under the official estimate of part-time employment (defined as persons who usually work less than 35 hours a week at all jobs). In 1995, nearly 8 in 10 of the workers who had a full- and a part-time job or whose hours varied on all jobs were in this age group, compared to 5 in 10 among the official part-time workers. There was a relatively high proportion of teenagers and workers in their early twenties in the group which combined several part-time jobs into a full-time schedule.

Women accounted for about 65 percent of all workers who combine several part-time jobs into a full-time schedule, a share that was

¹ The total estimate of persons with part-time work on full-time schedules also included 36,000 workers who were part time on their primary job and full time on their secondary job. In this analysis, it was assumed that persons who reported their hours varied on both jobs, worked part time on at least one of those jobs since few people who hold more than one job work full time at each job. A small portion of workers with more than one job (about 7 percent) held more than two jobs. For these workers, data are obtained on the hours worked at all secondary jobs combined.

comparable to the official estimate of part-time employment (68 percent). In contrast, the proportion of women with part-time jobs in the other two work arrangements was about 40 percent. Reflecting these differences in age and gender, workers who combined several part-time jobs into a full-time schedule were more commonly single men and married women. Married men, however, made up a relatively large proportion of those who worked at both a full- and part-time job or on a full-time schedule composed of jobs with varying hours.

Between 1994 and 1995, the number of full-time workers who held part-time jobs increased by about 380,000. The increase was evenly distributed among the three groups in this category and across demographic characteristics. The number of persons counted as part time under the official definition held at slightly more than 23 million in 1994 and 1995.

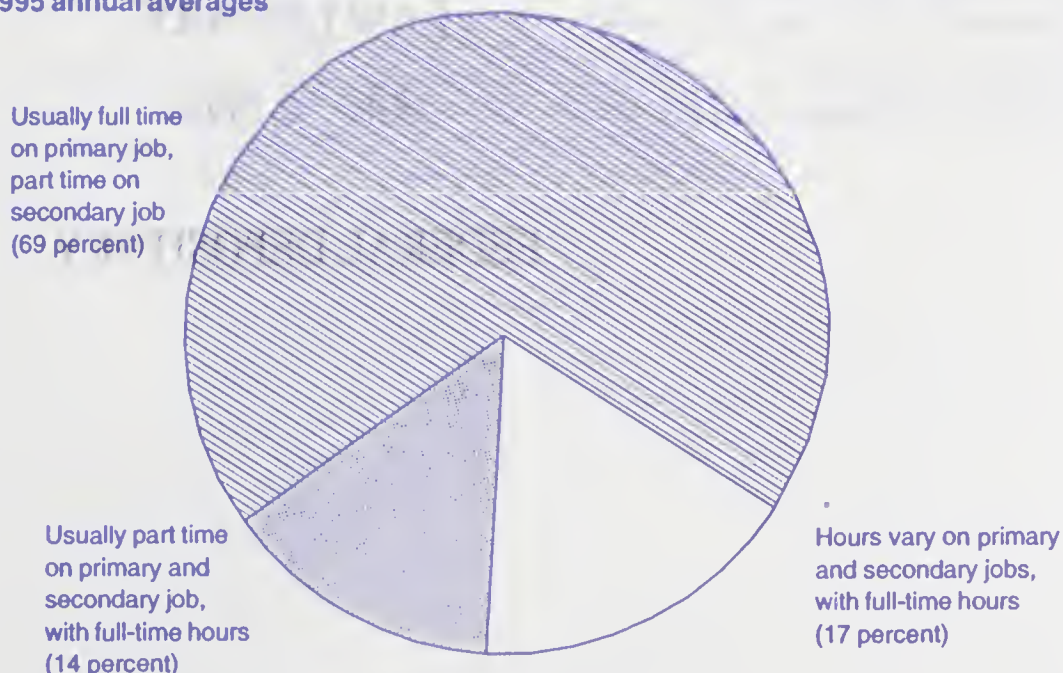
Background notes

The data presented in this report were obtained through the Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly sample survey of about 50,000 households conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Monthly estimates of the number of part-time workers however, do not include all persons with part-time jobs. In the CPS, persons who have more than one job are counted only once in the employment estimates. Such workers are classified as either full or part time based on their total usual weekly hours. So, workers who have both a full- and a part-time job, for example, are classified as full-time workers, as are those whose combined hours in two or more part-time jobs total at least 35.

With the introduction of the redesigned CPS in January 1994, it became possible to identify full-time workers who have part-time jobs

Percent distribution of workers on full-time schedules with part-time jobs, 1995 annual averages



Percent distribution of workers with part-time jobs by selected characteristics, 1995 annual averages

Characteristic	On full-time schedules ¹			Official estimate of part-time employment ²
	Usually full time on primary job, part time on secondary job	Usually part time on primary and secondary jobs, with full-time hours	Hours vary on primary and secondary jobs, with full-time hours	
Total, 16 years and over (thousands)	4,446	915	1,091	23,220
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
AGE AND SEX				
16 to 19 years	1.8	8.3	2.1	18.9
20 to 24 years	9.6	17.5	7.0	14.3
25 to 54 years	81.4	65.5	81.1	48.6
55 years and over	7.2	8.9	9.9	18.1
Men, 16 years and over	59.9	35.1	63.2	32.0
16 to 19 years9	3.4	1.1	8.9
20 to 24 years	5.2	7.1	4.1	6.0
25 to 54 years	49.3	21.0	51.3	9.7
55 years and over	4.6	3.7	6.6	7.4
Women, 16 years and over	40.1	64.9	36.8	68.0
16 to 19 years9	4.9	1.0	10.0
20 to 24 years	4.4	10.4	2.8	8.3
25 to 54 years	32.1	44.5	29.7	38.9
55 years and over	2.6	5.1	3.3	10.7
RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN				
White	86.2	90.3	90.8	87.4
Black	10.4	7.1	6.5	8.8
Hispanic origin	6.1	6.0	4.2	7.7
MARITAL STATUS				
Men:				
Single	12.6	16.7	11.8	18.1
Married, spouse present	41.5	14.5	45.4	11.2
Divorced, widowed, or separated	5.9	3.8	6.0	2.8
Women:				
Single	10.9	21.2	8.8	20.3
Married, spouse present	17.7	32.1	18.9	38.3
Divorced, widowed, or separated	11.4	11.6	9.2	9.4

¹ Refers to workers who usually work 35 hours or more a week, defined as a full-time schedule, and who have at least one part-time job.

² Refers to workers who usually work a total of less than 35 hours a week at one or more jobs.

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and to compare their characteristics to part-time workers as traditionally defined by BLS.

In addition, it became possible to obtain, on a monthly basis, information on respondents who hold more than one job, including the number of hours worked at each job. In doing so, data on usual hours worked by multiple jobholders can be separated between hours worked at the main job and the secondary job(s). Prior to 1994, multiple jobholding data were collected through occasional supplements to the CPS and respondents were asked only for the hours worked on the second job but not on any other non-primary jobs.

For more information on multiple jobholding and part-time employment, contact Jennifer Gardner, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC (202) 606-6378. Information in this report will be made available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577.

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Deadly Highway Accidents Outnumber Other Fatal Work Incidents

Highway travel claims more lives than any other work-related activity. In 1995, approximately 1,300 workers died in highway traffic incidents, compared to 1,000 work-related homicides and about 550 deaths each, due to workers being struck by objects or falling from heights. Of the 6,210 fatalities documented in the 1995 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, highway incidents accounted for a fifth of the total. Homicides numbered a sixth of the fatalities, but no other deadly circumstance made up more than a tenth of the 1995 total.¹ (This report also describes nonfatal highway incidents.)

Although truckdrivers outnumbered, by far, any other occupation involved in highway fatalities, most victims of fatal work-related highway accidents did not operate trucks or other motor vehicles for a living. Rather, these casualties routinely drove, or rode, to various locations to perform work activities. They included various types of workers: Nurses caring for the infirm in their homes, sales representatives visiting prospective buyers and/or current clients, managers and administrators attending meetings and/or monitoring job sites, protective service workers responding to fires or other emergencies or investigating crimes, and farmworkers driving tractors on public

roadways to travel to fields. Based on the BLS fatality census, truckdrivers (and others operating motor vehicles as a profession) made up about two-fifths of all highway fatalities, while other types of workers accounted for three-fifths of the total.

Three types of incidents accounted for a fifth each of all job-related highway fatalities: Head-on collisions between two or more vehicles; single-vehicle crashes into stationary objects at the side of the road, such as trees, utility poles, and bridge abutments; and noncollision incidents involving overturned or jack-knifed vehicles. (See table.) Half the 1,329 workers killed in 1995 highway vehicle incidents were driving (or riding) in trucks—most often tractor trailer rigs, and to a lesser extent, pickup trucks—while another quarter were killed in automobiles. Nearly 90 percent of the workers involved in highway fatalities had been operating vehicles at the time of accident; the rest were passengers.

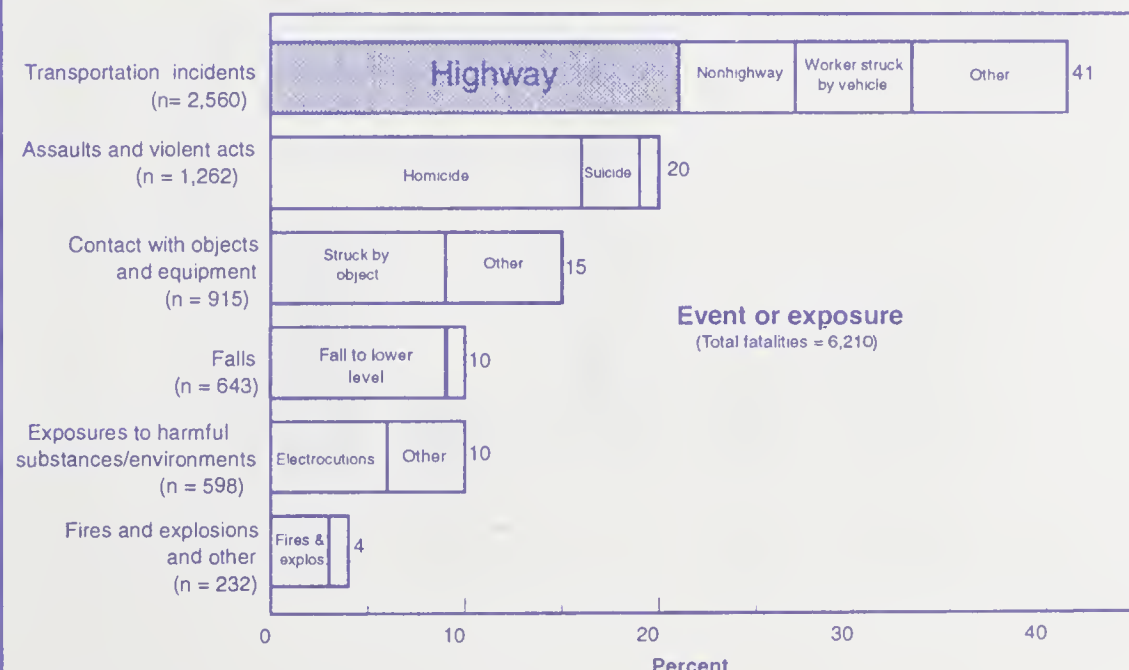
Nonfatal highway incidents

Besides 1,300 highway fatalities, BLS recently began compiling data on the number of nonfatal highway incidents in private workplaces that necessitate injured wage and salary workers to miss a day or more of work. For 1994 (the latest year for which such data are available), BLS estimated 51,000 injuries from highway incidents resulting in lost worktime. These injuries caused workers to miss a median of 10 workdays—twice the national median for the 2-1/4 million injuries relating to all types of workplace incidents in 1994 that resulted in days away from work. This severity pattern was also evident for specific occupations. For example, injuries to truckdrivers involved in highway incidents (17,000 cases) entailed a median of 14 days of lost worktime, compared to an 8-day median for all truckdriver injuries (164,000 cases in 1994).

Although nonfatal and fatal highway

¹See chart for distribution of workplace fatalities among six broad event or exposure categories. The chart also depicts sub-categories within the major categories. For example, the sub-category "Highway" is designated within the event marked "Transportation incidents." Highway fatalities include deaths of vehicle *occupants*, primarily drivers, while on public roadways, shoulders, or surrounding areas. Fatalities that occur during commutes to or from work, however, are excluded.

The manner in which workplace fatalities occurred, 1995



Fatal and disabling injuries resulting from highway accidents, 1994-95

Type of highway accident	Percent distribution		Median ³ workdays lost from disabling injuries ²
	Fatal injuries ¹ (n=1,329)	Disabling injuries ² (n=50,800)	
All highway accidents	100	100	10
Collision between vehicles, mobile equipment	48	71	10
Moving in opposite directions	18	4	11
Moving in intersection	7	10	8
Moving in same direction	9	16	8
Moving and standing vehicle, mobile equipment	3	12	7
In roadway	2	11	7
Side of road	1	1	10
Unspecified	7	23	14
Vehicle struck stationary object or equipment (except another vehicle)	20	7	8
In roadway	1	2	5
Side of road	19	5	12
Noncollision incident	26	14	12
Jack-knifed or overturned	20	6	14
Ran off highway	4	3	13
Sudden start or stop	1	2	10
Other or unspecified	6	9	—

¹ Based on data from the 1995 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, which covered all workers in the private and public sectors: Wage and salaried, self-employed, and family members.

² Based on data from the 1994 BLS Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses, which covered just wage and salaried workers in private industries. Disabling highway incidents are those that result in lost worktime.

³ Median workdays lost is the point at which half the injuries involved more lost days and half involved fewer days. The dash indicates that a median was not computed.

NOTE: Percentages may not add to overall or category totals, due to omission of miscellaneous categories and/or because of rounding.

accidents usually resulted from vehicles colliding, the way these collisions occurred accounted for differences in injury severity. Collisions between vehicles moving in the same direction were generally cited for lost worktime injuries, while fatal crashes typically

involved vehicles moving in opposite (oncoming) directions. Additionally, highway accidents involving moving vehicles colliding into standing vehicles (either parked or in traffic) were cited more often for lost worktime than for fatal injuries. By contrast, single-vehicle

crashes and jack-knifed or overturned vehicles figured more prominently in highway fatalities than in lost worktime. (See table.)

In highway incidents resulting in injured survivors, the injuries usually effected relatively lengthy absences from work. Injuries from jackknifed or overturned vehicles caused a median of 14 lost workdays; injuries due to vehicles striking fixed objects along roadsides recorded a 12-day median; and injuries caused by head-on collisions had an 11-day median. Additionally, those incidents involving out-of-control vehicles running off highways resulted in a median of 13 lost workdays.

Data for this report were derived from the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries and its companion Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses. For more information on highway incidents, contact the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Room 3180, 2 Massachusetts Avenue, NE, Washington DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 606-6175.

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How long is the workweek?

Efforts to shorten the work week were top labor issues in the first four decades of this century and resulted in the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. In the 1990s, time spent at work is still a key factor in determining the quality of jobs and one's standard of living. At one extreme, those in managerial and professional jobs who have been spared from the impact of corporate restructuring are perceived as having to work longer workweeks to protect their own positions. On the other end of the market, many newly created jobs have been stereotyped as low wage, part-time, poor-quality jobs.

This report examines trends in weekly working hours between 1976 and 1993 using data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), a representative national sample of households.¹ The data suggest that the average length of the workweek has risen only slightly since the mid-1970s; more important has been a change in the distribution of work hours. In this respect, the most noteworthy differences are an increase in the share of persons who are working very long workweeks—49 hours or more—and a decline in the share working 40 hours a week. A companion piece examines annual work hours and will be released at the same time as this report.

Average hours at work increase

only 1 hour for men and 2 hours for women from 1976 to 1993. Part of these increases can be attributed to a changing age profile of the American workforce (see table). By 1993, baby-boomers—those born between 1946 and 1964—all had moved into the central working ages of 25 to 54. Meanwhile, younger and older workers comprised a declining share of employment. Workweeks typically are longer for workers age 25 to 54, and part-time employment is more common among younger and older workers.

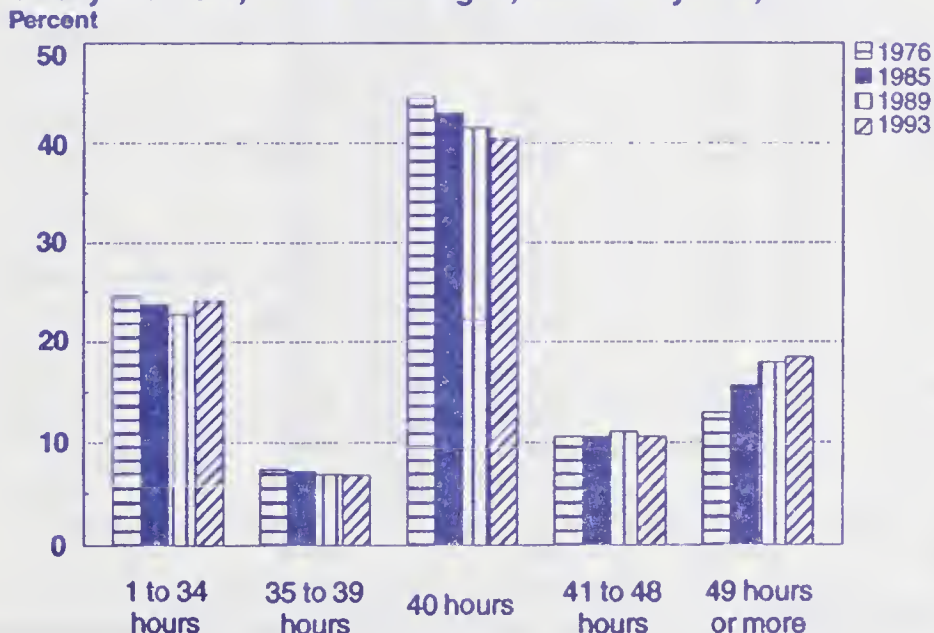
To gauge the effect of the shifting age distribution on the change in workweeks, average hours in 1993 were calculated as if the age distribution of those at work had remained unchanged since 1976. As the tabulation below shows, after removing the effect of age, the

workweek for men was virtually unchanged and women's weekly hours rose by only a single hour.

	Average hours		Age-adjusted hours
	1976	1993	1993
Men, 16 years and older	41.0	42.0	41.2
Women, 16 years and older	34.0	36.0	35.0

The small changes in the length of the workweek, adjusted or unadjusted, reflect offsetting increases and decreases in the hours-at-work distribution. Between 1976 and 1993, the proportion of nonfarm wage and salary workers who reported that they were at work exactly 40 hours per week declined, while the share working 49 hours or more rose. The proportions working

Distribution of hours at work of nonagricultural wage and salary workers, annual averages, selected years, 1976-93



¹ Data from 1994 onward are not strictly comparable to those from prior years because of a redesign of the CPS.

Percent distribution of nonagricultural wage and salary workers at work and their average weekly hours by age and sex, annual averages, 1976 and 1993

Characteristics	Total at work		Average hours	
	1976	1993	1976	1993
Total (thousands).....	73,276	102,615	38.1	39.2
16 to 24 years.....	24.0	16.7	33.6	32.5
25 to 54 years.....	62.2	72.6	40.1	41.1
55 years and over.....	13.8	10.7	37.2	36.8
Men (thousands).....	42,994	54,573	41.0	42.0
16 to 24 years.....	21.8	16.2	35.4	34.2
25 to 54 years.....	64.3	73.1	43.1	44.1
55 years and over.....	14.0	10.7	39.7	39.6
Women (thousands).....	30,282	48,042	34.0	36.0
16 to 24 years.....	27.1	17.2	31.5	30.7
25 to 54 years.....	59.2	72.1	35.3	37.7
55 years and over.....	13.6	10.7	33.4	33.6

fewer than 40 hours and 41-48 hours remained fairly stable. (See chart.) The growth in the share of workers reporting very long work-weeks is not infrequently attributed to a shift in employment towards high-hour occupations such as managers, professionals, and certain sales workers. A detailed analysis of the growth in the number of persons working 49 hours or more from 1985 to 1993 shows that only 8.1 percent

of the increase was produced by changes in the occupational mix. The rest was evenly divided between the impact of overall employment growth during the period and the rise in the share of long workweeks in every major occupational group. For additional information on hours at work and a technical description of the Current Population Survey, contact Randy E. Ilg or Jennifer M. Gardner, Office of

Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Tel: (202)-606-6378. Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals on request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577. This material is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission.

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Workers Are On the Job More Hours Over the Course of the Year

The average length of the workweek has risen only slightly since the 1970s. But rephrasing the question from “What has been the trend in the length of the workweek?”—a question addressed in a companion piece released at the same time as this report—to the broader “What has been the trend in hours at work over an entire year?” identifies more dramatic shifts.

Two factors in addition to the length of the workweek affect time spent at work in a year. First, is the extent to which a person works at all during any particular year. Second, is the number of weeks that a person works during the year. In the calculation of average weekly hours, workers are included only when they work; they are “out of scope” when they do not. Yet we know that changes have taken place in the number of weeks a year that workers are spending on the job, particularly women who increasingly have been working year round (see table).

The following formula takes into account changes in the share of the population working and the extent of their work activity: The aggregate number of hours worked in a *week* is the product of the number of persons at work in an average week and their average hours. This is then multiplied by 52 weeks to obtain an estimate of the total number of hours worked during the *year*. Dividing this estimate of aggregate annual hours by the number who worked at any time during the year (obtained from the work experience questions in the March Current Population Survey) yields average hours worked per worker per year.

Annual hours calculated in this fashion rose steadily for women until the late 1980s when the rate of growth

slowed slightly. Men’s annual hours have risen much less than women’s since the mid-1970s, and appear to be more sensitive to the business cycle. (See chart.) The hours series for men is higher than that for women because men both work longer work weeks and are more likely to work year round.

As shown in the tabulation, employed women worked an average of nearly 20 percent more in 1993 than in 1976, adding 233 hours to their average work year, while men added 100 hours to theirs. But, as with the weekly hours data, the changing age distribution of the population had an impact. Adjusting for this age shift in annual hours only modestly reduces the rise. Women’s hours, after age-adjustment, were up nearly 200 (or 15 percent) over the period, while men’s average workyear rose 62 hours or 3 percent.

Average annual work hours

	Men	Women
1976	1,805	1,293
1993	1,905	1,526
1976-93 change	100	233
Age-adjusted change	62	193

These calculations still leave one important trend unaccounted for: the change in the likelihood of an individual to work at all during the year could affect annual hours considerably. Using the entire population of males as the denominator, not just those who worked, there was no net change in the average annual hours worked by men since the mid-1970s. This is because men have become somewhat less likely to be employed. Their employment-to-

Average annual hours at work for men and women, 1976-93



NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions.

Persons with work experience who worked year-round full time by age and sex, annual averages, 1976 and 1993

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic		1976	1993	1976	1993
Percent who worked 50 to 52 weeks	Total who worked during the year	104,219	135,464	54.3	60.9
		26,251	22,936	27.2	29.0
Total, 16 years and over					
16 to 24 years					
25 to 54 years					
55 years and over					
Men, 16 years and over					
16 to 24 years					
25 to 54 years					
55 years and over					
Women, 16 years and over					
16 to 24 years					
25 to 54 years					
55 years and over					

NOTE: Data for 1976 and 1993 are not strictly comparable because they reflect population controls based on the 1970 and 1980 censuses, respectively.

population ratio was 75.2 percent in 1993 compared to 77.5 percent in 1976. In contrast to men, a growing share of women worked over the period. As a result, when women's total hours at work are distributed across their *population* base, the rise was even more rapid than in the *employment*-based series. When allocated across the entire population of women age 16 and over,

the average number of hours each woman worked grew by 33 percent from 1976 to 1993 (See chart). For additional information on hours at work and a technical description of the Current Population Survey from which the data used in this report were derived, contact Jennifer M. Gardner or Randy Ilg, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of

Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Tel: (202) 606-6378. Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals on request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577. The material is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission.

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Injuries to Caregivers Working in Patients' Homes

The industry that supplies nursing and personal care in patients' homes is adding jobs faster than any other segment of the U.S. economy, having doubled its workforce from a quarter million employees in 1989 to a half million in 1994. And, according to BLS projections, it will probably employ one and one-quarter million workers by the year 2005. That's good news for patients who prefer to receive care in the privacy and comfort of their own homes rather than in an institutional setting. But accelerating demand for home care represents a safety challenge for nurses and other caregivers traveling among and working in patients' homes. This report shows that the home health care industry logs relatively large numbers of lost-worktime injuries resulting from highway accidents, all types of overexertion when assisting patients, and falls inside and outside their homes. Most of the industry's 18,800 injury cases in 1994 involved nursing and home health care aides, and the resulting absence from work due to injury usually lasted 1 to 2 weeks.

Overall, the 1994 injury rate in home health care services (474 lost workday cases per 10,000 workers) is about 50 percent higher than the injury rate in hospitals, the institutional setting from which many home-care patients are released, and 70 percent greater than the national rate. (See chart.) The comparatively high rate in the home health care

industry reflects in part the relatively large number of highway-related injuries sustained by home care personnel while making house calls. In fact, the industry's rate of highway-related injuries (76 per 10,000 workers) in 1994 ranks fourth behind those in taxicab services (98), school buses (91), and local bus transportation (78). It is well ahead of trucking services (48). In contrast, most industries, including hospitals, report highway injury rates in single digits because they rarely require employee travel during the course of the workday.¹

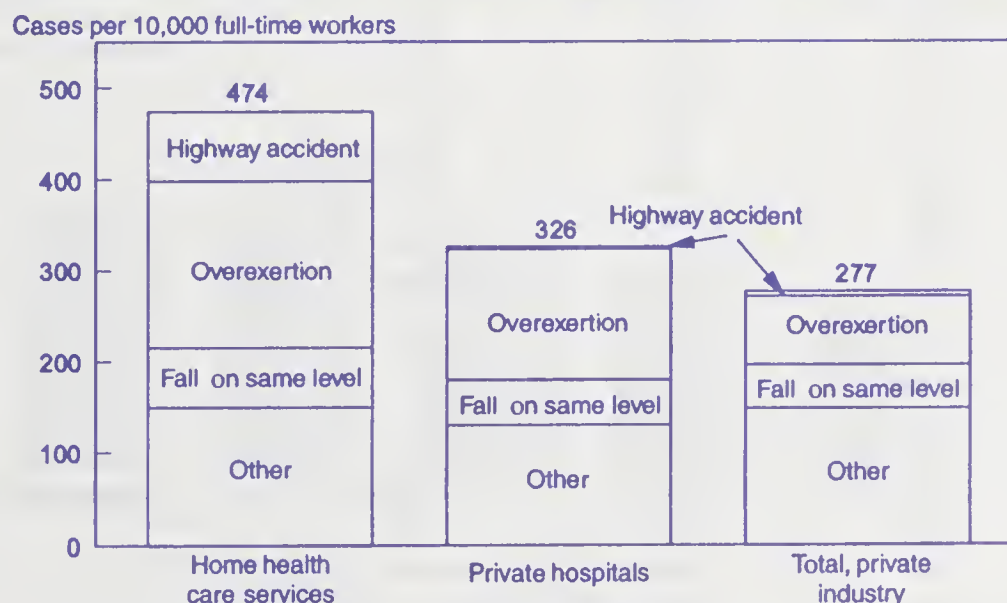
When highway-related injuries are excluded from industry totals, the home health care rate (398 cases per 10,000 workers) still exceeds the corresponding rate in hospitals by nearly 25 percent and the national rate by almost 50 percent, suggesting that there are relatively high injury risks associated with working in and around patients' homes. (See table.) One such risk involves maneuvering patients

singlehandedly, often without the use of mechanical lifting devices available in some institutional settings. Many of the patient-handling injuries are classified as "overexertion," which is most often cited nationwide for work-related injuries resulting in lost worktime. The rate for overexertion injuries in home health care services—183 per 10,000 workers—is especially high, in fact, more than double the corresponding national rate and one of the 10 highest rates reported for overexertion injuries among several hundred industries for which BLS published data in 1994. Overexertion injuries occur less frequently in hospitals than in home health care, but the rate in hospitals (144 per 10,000 workers) is nearly double the national rate, a difference that by itself explains why the overall injury rate is higher in hospitals than in private industry as a whole.

Among other events leading to work injuries, falling and related incidents such as slipping and stressful bending/

¹ Many home health care workers are assigned to visit two or more clients in a given day, largely explaining why their risk of highway-related injuries is well above average. Highway accidents include work-related injuries of vehicle occupants, primarily drivers, while on public roadways, shoulders, or surrounding areas. Injuries that occur while commuting prior to the start of the workday or after it ends are not counted as work-related injuries.

The frequency of lost-worktime injuries and how they occur, 1994



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor

Incidence rates for various ways in which lost-worktime injuries occur, 1994

Event or exposure ¹	Cases per 10,000 equivalent full-time workers ²		
	Home health care services	Private hospitals	Private industry total
Total	474	326	277
Total less highway accidents	398	323	271
Total less highway accidents and injuries due to overexertion	215	179	195
Total less highway accidents, injuries due to overexertion, and falls on same level	144	135	162
Selected categories			
Highway accidents, all types	76	3	6
Collision between vehicles	61	2	5
Overexertion, all types	183	144	76
Lifting	103	78	46
Falls on same level	71	44	33
Bodily reactions, all types	52	37	30
Bend, climb, crawl, reach, twist	24	16	11
Slip, trip, loss of balance—without fall	17	10	9
Falls to a lower level, all types	17	8	14
Fall down stairs or steps	15	4	3
Struck against object	13	15	20
Exposure to caustic, noxious, or allergenic substances	11	13	14
Struck by object	10	23	36
Assaults and violent acts by person(s)	6	8	3

¹Based on the 1992 BLS Occupational Injury and Illness Classification Structures.

²Based on days-away-from-work cases which include injuries resulting in missed workdays with or without additional days of restricted work activity. In 1994, the case totals were 18,812 in home health care services,

98,196 in private hospitals, and 2,236,639 in private industry as a whole.

NOTE: Data for totals and major categories may include subcategories not shown separately.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses.

climbing result in lost-worktime injuries more frequently in home care settings than in hospitals or in most other industries (see table). As is true for overexertion, the rate of falls on the same level in home health care services—71 per 10,000 workers—is particularly high, more than double the corresponding national rate and among the 10 highest industry rates reported in 1994. Many of the same-level falls of home health care workers are sustained in trying to negotiate ice- and snow-covered streets, driveways, sidewalks,

and paths to their patients' homes.

Data for this report are from the BLS Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses. A companion BLS program, the Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, contains information on the number of home health care workers fatally injured, and the circumstances surrounding their deaths. In 1994, for example, the census counted 20 fatal injuries, 12 of them sustained in highway accidents. For more information on injuries in the home health care

industry, contact the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Room 3180, 2 Massachusetts Avenue, NE, Washington DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 606-6180.

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Warm Areas Continue Hottest Job Growth

In terms of employment, warm weather cities dominated the list of fastest growing metropolitan areas in 1996. The Las Vegas, NV metropolitan statistical area (MSA) led all areas in growth rate, adding jobs at a robust 8.6 percent pace. Growth on this order has become commonplace in Las Vegas. Over the past 5 years, the area's employment growth rate has averaged 8 percent and there are now 40 percent more jobs in the booming resort area than in 1991.

There are now 21 MSA's with over one million jobs, up from 19 just 1 year ago. Denver, CO and Tampa-St. Petersburg-Clearwater, FL crossed that threshold in the past year. San Diego just missed the big list with a 1996 annual average count of 999,000 jobs. Among these large MSA's, Phoenix-Mesa, AZ experienced the highest growth rate, adding 6.9 percent to employment over the past year, while Atlanta, GA added the greatest number of jobs, 88,400. Phoenix has now added some 300,000 jobs, or about 30 percent, since the recession year of 1991, while Atlanta has added nearly 400,000 jobs, or 26 percent, over the same span.

The table summarizes the biggest gainers by MSA size class, as measured by jobs added and percent growth. Interestingly, Decatur, IL is the only area in the table that is accustomed to seeing more than a

couple inches of snow per year. But not every warm, sunny city fared as well. Honolulu, HI, with the highest mean temperature of any major city in the U.S., lost 4,400 jobs, the most of any area.

Is big bad?

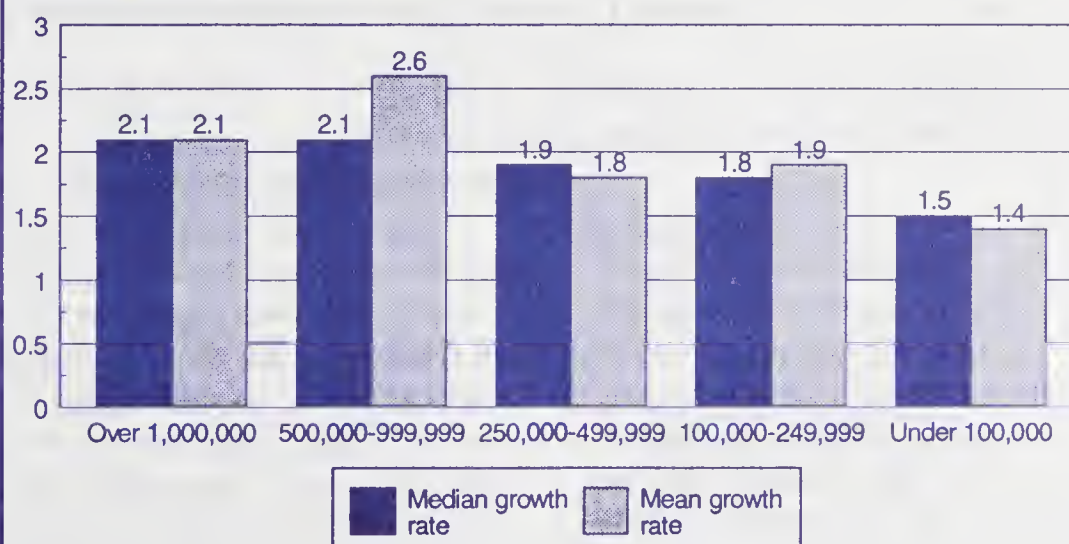
There may be a perception that America's biggest MSA's are not performing as well in job growth as the smaller ones. For example, *The Wall Street Journal* reports that both New York and Los Angeles "have been slow to recover from deep recessions and have employment rates that raise the national average" by an estimated 0.2 percentage point. And, the president of New York's Federal Reserve Bank remarked recently, "By one key and

highly visible measure—employment—the New York City area has yet to recover fully from the last recession. The local job count is still more than one-half million below its 1989 peak."

The data from the CES program do not, however, support a generalized notion of slower growth in larger metropolitan areas. Only 4 out of 21 areas with employment over 1 million had growth rates under 1 percent last year, and none of these areas experienced job losses. A look at the mean and median growth rates by size class shows that, in fact, the smallest areas had lower growth rates. (See chart.) Areas with more than a half million jobs averaged over 2.0 percent growth, while areas with

Average employment growth rates in metropolitan areas by employment size class, 1995-96

Growth rate (percent)



fewer than 100,000 jobs averaged around 1.5 percent growth. It is true, however, that many of the large MSA's record a substantial number of their jobs, and job growth, in outlying counties.

Data for this report were derived from the BLS Current Employment Statistics program, which provides information on the employment, hours, and earnings of workers on nonfarm payrolls. The data are

collected from payroll records by BLS in cooperation with State employment security agencies. Complete tables of metropolitan area employment used in this report can be found at <http://stats.bls.gov:80/790issues1.htm> For more information on this program, contact the CES staff at 2 Massachusetts Ave. N.E., Room 4860, Washington, DC 20212, (202) 606-6559, or visit, <http://stats.bls.gov:80/790home.htm>,

the CES State and area homepage.

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Metropolitan area employment growth leaders, 1995-96

<i>Employment class</i>	<i>Area / jobs added</i>	<i>Area / percent increase</i>
Over 1,000,000	Atlanta, GA (88,400)	Phoenix-Mesa, AZ (6.9)
500,000-999,999	San Jose, CA (47,200)	Las Vegas, NV (8.6)
250,000-499,999	West Palm Beach-Boca Raton, FL (17,300)	West Palm Beach-Boca Raton, FL (4.3)
100,000-249,999	Sarasota-Bradenton, FL (15,300)	Sarasota-Bradenton, FL (7.3)
Under 100,000	Lake Charles, LA (3,400)	Decatur, IL (5.7)

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Electricity-related Injuries at Work

Electricity illuminates homes and worksites, energizes machines, tools, and appliances, and under threatening skies may appear as flashes of lightning. It is one of the Nation's most important sources of power. But, contact with electric current can produce serious injury or death. The BLS nationwide Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries counted 347 work-related electrocutions in 1995; the BLS Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses estimated over 4,700 nonfatal electric shocks and electric burns in private workplaces that year, each of those injuries resulting in time away from work.

Construction trades led all other occupational groups affected by deadly and disabling contacts with electric current, accounting for nearly half the work-related electrocutions and just over a fourth of nonfatal electric shocks and burns reported by the 1995 BLS census and survey.¹ (See chart.) Among construction trades, electricians and their apprentices, by themselves, were a fifth of the fatal and nonfatal totals for electricity-related injuries. Outside those trades, mechanics, farming jobs,

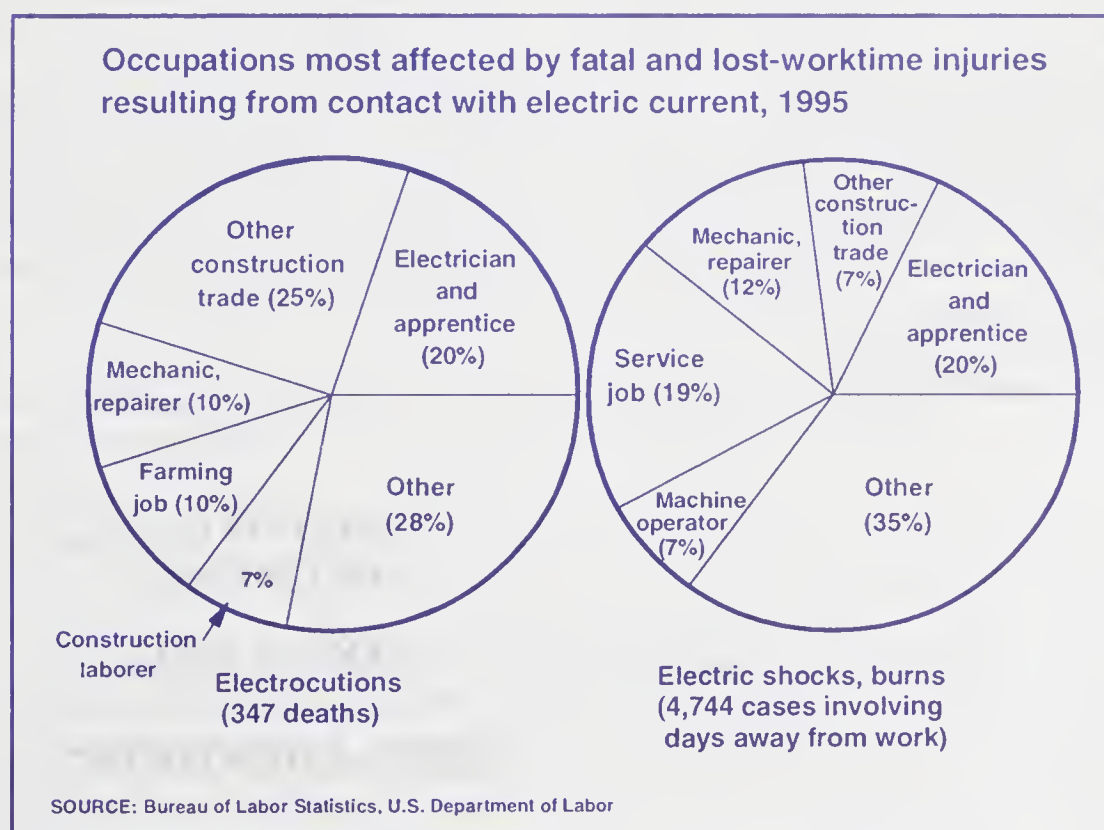
and construction laborers accounted for a fourth of all electrocutions while mechanics, service jobs (e.g., janitors, maids, and kitchen workers), and machine operators combined were nearly two-fifths of the total for those who survived electric shocks and burns.

Contact with overhead power lines resulted in more work-related electrocutions (139 out of 347 counted in the 1995 BLS census) than contacts with any other energized source of power. (See table.) In some instances, electricians and other employees suffered fatal injuries when they touched "live" power lines. Many other electrocutions of this type, however, occurred indirectly when

objects contacted power lines, such as irrigation pipes lifted by farm workers, ladders moved by roofers and their helpers, and truck-mounted cranes and booms raised and lowered by truckdrivers and construction workers. The BLS survey estimated that 155 workers who survived their contacts with overhead power lines were injured seriously enough to lose a median of 13 days away from work, four times the typical loss of 3 workdays for workers suffering from nonfatal electric shocks or burns in 1995.

Contact with wiring, transformers, or other electrical components, and contact with the electric current of a machine, tool, appliance, or light

¹Differences in the occupational distributions of fatal and nonfatal injuries resulting from contact with electricity reflect, in part, differences in workers covered by the BLS census and survey. The survey, for example, excludes the self-employed and workers on small farms, groups the BLS census includes. (See footnotes at bottom of accompanying table for more on this topic.)



Fatal and lost-worktime injuries due to contact with electric current, 1995

Energized source of power	Percent distribution		Median ³ workdays lost from disabling injuries ²
	Fatal injuries ¹ (n = 347)	Disabling injuries ² (n = 4,744)	
Total	100	100	3
Machine, tool, appliance, or light fixture	16	32	2
Wiring, transformers, or other electrical components	27	33	5
Overhead power lines	40	3	13
Underground, buried power lines	1	1	10
Struck by lightning	5	4	2
Other or unspecified	11	27	-

¹Based on data from the 1995 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, which covered all workers in the private and public sectors: Wage and salaried, self-employed, and family members.
²Based on data from the 1995 BLS Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses, which covered just wage and salaried workers in private industries, excluding private households and farms with fewer than 11 employees. Disabling injuries are defined as those that result in lost worktime beyond the day of the incident.
³Median workdays lost is the point at which half of the injuries involved more lost workdays and half involved fewer days. The dash indicates that a median was not computed.

fixture were two other ways in which workers sustained deadly or disabling injuries. Together, they accounted for slightly more than two-fifths of all work-related electrocutions and two-thirds of all electricity-related injuries resulting in days away from work. Among the fatally injured workers included in these categories were several electrocuted while repairing or installing air conditioning units or fluorescent lighting, and several others electrocuted after contacting live wires

while working in crawl spaces under houses or in attics. The categories were also cited for some 3,000 lost worktime cases, such as janitors and cleaners disabled by electric shocks while vacuuming and electricians disabled while installing switches and changing fuses. Typically, workers injured while contacting electric wiring, transformers, or other electrical components missed 5 workdays, compared with 2 workdays lost for those coming in contact with

the electric current of machines, tools, appliances, or light fixtures.
The balance of the electricity-related injuries resulted from workers digging near, and hitting underground or buried power lines; farmers and other workers struck by lightning; and a variety of other contacts with electric current for which the energized source of power was not documented or was not one of the five categories specified for use in the BLS census and survey of work-related injuries.

Data for this report were derived from the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries and its companion Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses. For more information on electricity-related injuries, contact the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Room 3180, 2 Massachusetts Avenue, NE, Washington DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 606-6175.

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Health Expenditures and the Aging Population

One of the major demographic changes affecting the United States is the aging of the population. This trend will continue for the next several years as the "baby boomers" continue to age. The Bureau of Labor Statistics consumer expenditure data may be used to compare some of the trends in spending patterns for those 65 years of age and older and those under 65.

One important factor is the increasing proportion of the population accounted for by older consumer units.¹ The proportion of all consumer units whose reference person is older than 65 increased to 21.2 percent in 1995 from 19.8 percent in 1984. Given the growth of the population, this represents an average increase of approximately 816,000 consumer units per year, due mainly to the growing number of the most senior members of this group, that is, those aged 75 and older.

Consumer units whose reference person is at least 65 years old account for a significant portion of consumer spending. In 1984, this group accounted for \$1 in every \$8 spent. By 1995, for every \$7 spent, \$1 came from a consumer unit whose reference person was at least 65 years old. But what are the ramifications of this increase for less aggregated expenditures? Assuming that older consumers have different

tastes, preferences, or physical needs than younger ones, they will also have different expenditure patterns. Reflecting their changing physical condition, a major component of spending among the elderly is for health care. In general, those aged 75 and over are presumably at the greatest risk for incurring health care costs. The overall increase in real total health care expenditures from 1984 to 1995 is much higher for older consumers than for younger ones. Expenditures rose about 8 percent for the younger group, while the older groups each increased their health care expenditures by over 20 percent. This expenditure component also appears to be more volatile than other expenditures, at least for those aged 75 and older. Among all expenditures, those for medical services and supplies appear to vary the most from year to year. In the most extreme case, expenditures for medical services by those aged 75 and over fell from \$1,078 in 1986 to \$601 in 1987, and rose to \$1,099 in 1988.

The chart reveals some interesting patterns in spending on health insurance. Between 1984 and 1986, shares for health insurance for all groups decreased. They then began to increase and have done so more or less continuously. Although divergence in shares has existed for

the two older segments (65 to 74 years and 75 and older), both shares were at about 58 percent in 1995. The rate of increase in the share for the oldest group (75 and older) has been steeper than for the 65- to 74-year-old group in the last few years. However, the share for those aged 75 and older also fluctuates dramatically, so it is difficult to predict whether or not the share for them will soon go on to exceed the share for those aged 65 to 74.

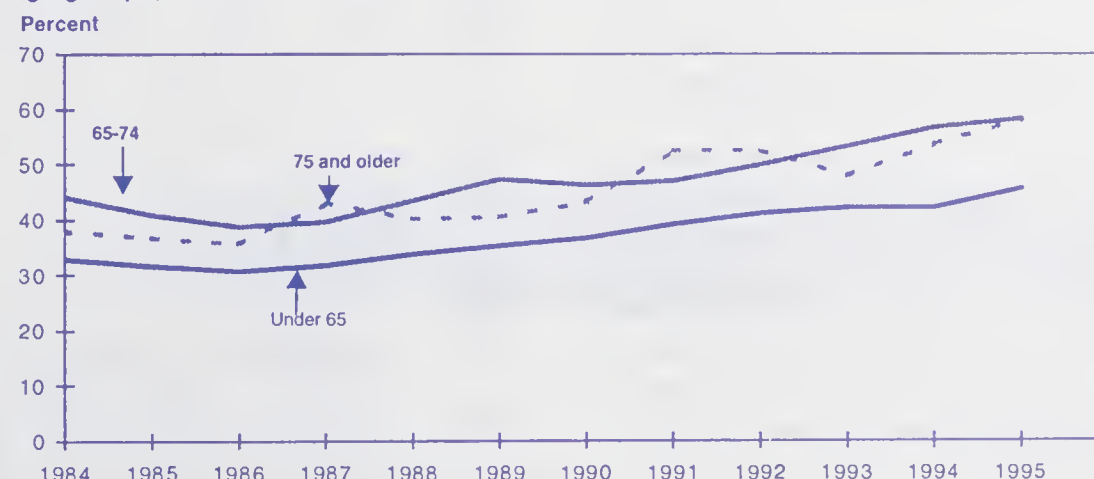
Shares of total health care spending going to medical services and medical supplies have decreased over time; medical services, however, have been less volatile than supplies.² Expenditures by the group aged 75 and older are still the most volatile for either category, but the pattern appears to fluctuate less for medical services than supplies. For all age groups, shares for medical services have declined since 1987.

Real expenditures for prescription drugs are fairly stable for younger consumer units, fluctuating in a relatively narrow band between \$200 and \$240 from 1984 to 1995. For older consumers, over the same period, these expenditures rose substantially, from \$402 to \$536 for those aged 65 to 74, and from \$420 to \$556 for those aged 75 and over. This constitutes an increase of about one-third in real dollars for each of the

¹ Consumer units are the standard unit of comparison for the Consumer Expenditure Survey. A consumer unit is defined as members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least two out of three major types of expenses—food, housing and other expenses. Students living in university-sponsored housing are also included in the sample as separate consumer units.

² Expenditures by the group aged 75 and older are still the most volatile for either category, but the pattern appears to fluctuate less for medical services than supplies.

Health insurance expenditures: Shares of all health care expenditures by age groups, 1984-95



NOTE: Percents are the percentage of health care expenditures allocated to health insurance.

Number of consumer units and real (1995 dollar) expenditures by age group, 1984-95

Characteristic	1984	1985	1987	1989	1991	1993	1995
Number of consumer units (000)	90,223	91,564	94,150	95,818	97,918	100,049	103,123
Under 65	72,357	72,919	74,378	75,496	77,216	78,189	81,330
65 to 74	10,761	11,302	11,578	11,848	11,935	11,934	11,933
75 and older	7,105	7,343	8,194	8,474	8,767	9,926	9,860
Percent of total consumer units							
Under 65	80.2	79.6	79.0	78.8	78.9	78.2	78.9
65 to 74	11.9	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.2	11.9	11.6
75 and older	7.9	8.0	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.9	9.6
Average annual expenditures	\$32,233	\$33,270	\$32,753	\$34,179	\$33,136	\$32,370	\$32,264
Under 65	35,134	35,983	35,707	37,104	36,113	35,147	34,949
65 to 74	23,237	25,407	25,339	25,966	25,248	25,002	25,277
75 and older	16,314	18,430	16,407	19,565	17,659	19,353	18,572
Percent of all consumer spending	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 65	87.4	86.1	86.1	85.5	85.9	84.9	85.4
65 to 74	8.6	9.4	9.5	9.4	9.3	9.2	9.1
75 and older	4.0	4.4	4.4	5.1	4.8	5.9	5.5
Health care (average annual expenditures)	\$1,539	\$1,569	\$1,523	\$1,729	\$1,739	\$1,873	\$1,732
Under 65	1,378	1,372	1,339	1,488	1,528	1,591	1,487
65 to 74	2,178	2,336	2,265	2,435	2,574	2,753	2,618
75 and older	2,206	2,345	2,141	2,889	2,458	3,041	2,683
Percent of all health care	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 65	71.8	69.6	69.5	67.8	69.3	66.4	67.7
65 to 74	16.9	18.4	18.3	17.4	18.0	17.5	17.5
75 and older	11.3	12.0	12.2	14.8	12.7	16.1	14.8

NOTE: Health care is defined to include out-of-pocket consumer expenditures only.

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older groups.

Despite this increase in real dollars spent on drugs by older consumers, there has been little increase in total drug expenditures as a share of all health care. For all consumer units older than 65, the share of health care allocated to drugs rose from about 19 percent in 1984 to 21 percent in 1995. For those aged 65 to 74, drug expenditures peaked in 1990 and 1995, when the share reached 20.7 percent. Drug expenditures were at their lowest in 1991, 18.3 percent. For consumer units aged 75 and older, drug expenditures ranged from 17.4 percent in 1988 to 22.5 in 1990.

For more information about the data presented here, contact Geoffrey Paulin in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys at (202) 606-6900. To find these data on the Internet, go to the Consumer Expenditure Surveys home page (address: <http://stats.bls.gov:80/csxhome.htm>). To obtain historical data from the Consumer Price Index, call (202) 606-7000.

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Serious Injuries Befall Workers Struck by Objects

Falling trees, machinery and vehicles that have slipped into gear, and building materials, such as steel beams and concrete blocks, are some of the objects that strike and kill workers each year. In the 1996 BLS nationwide Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, 579 fatalities resulted from objects striking workers, amounting to almost a tenth of all fatal work injuries (6,112) counted that year. Since its implementation in 1992, this BLS census has reported between 550 and 600 deaths a year linked to workers being hit by objects, primarily those objects falling from elevations. The number of workers fatally struck by objects, in fact, reached a 5-year high of 402 in 1996.

The hazards of harvesting timber put workers at high risk of serious injury. Timber cutting and logging occupations alone accounted for a sixth of all workers fatally struck by objects (90 out of 579). Other occupational groupings associated with this type of fatality included: (See chart.)

- *Farmers*, struck while clearing trees or run over by tractors they had dismounted
- *Construction trades and laborers*, hit by falling or swinging lumber, beams, and concrete
- *Truckdrivers and material moving equipment operators*, struck by heavy objects being loaded and unloaded
- *Mechanics*, pinned under falling vehicles and mobile equipment during repair

Lost-worktime incidents

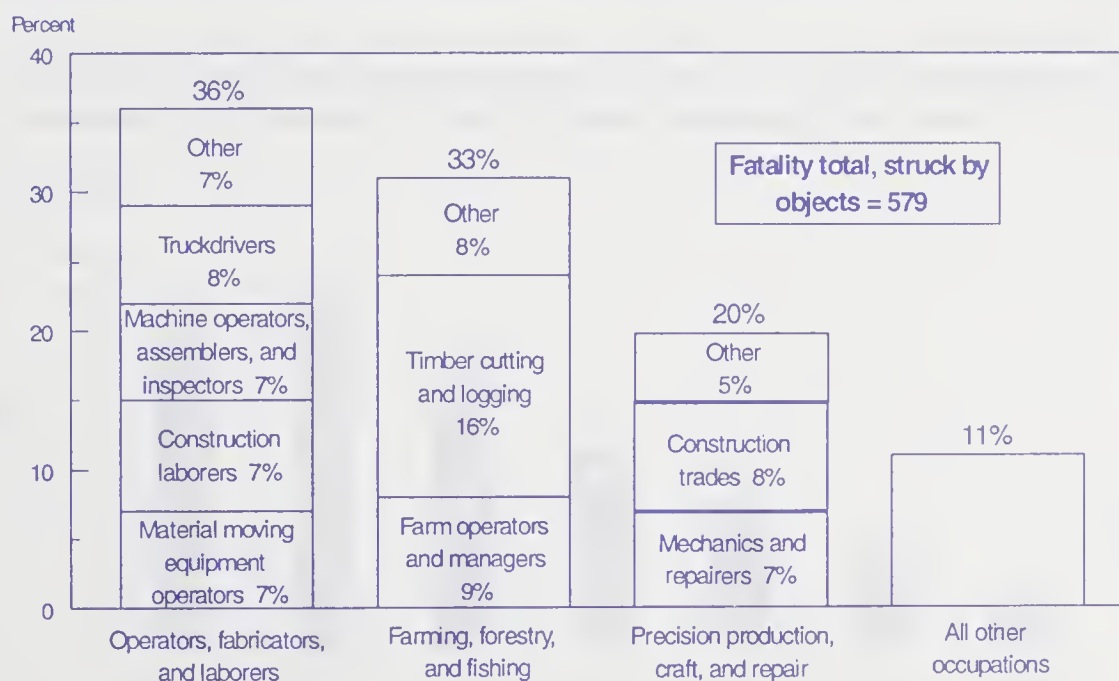
Besides profiling incidents of objects striking and killing workers, BLS also estimates the number of serious, nonfatal injuries associated with impacts of this type that require private industry workers to take off 1 or more workdays. In 1995 (the latest year for which such data are available), about 270,000 injuries resulted from workers being hit by objects—about an eighth of the total for all types of lost-worktime injuries.

Objects that struck and killed workers often differed from the primary sources striking and inflicting lost-worktime injuries. (See table.) Trees and logs, for example, accounted for three-tenths of all fatalities resulting from objects striking workers, compared with 1 percent of all such cases involving days away from work. Machinery and vehicles were involved in

an eighth each of all incidents where workers were fatally struck by objects but in only about half that proportion of incidents where workers survived.

The types of machinery and vehicles striking workers differed, as well. Material handling, agricultural, construction, logging, and mining machinery were most often cited in machinery-related fatalities, whereas refrigerators, sawing machinery, and hydraulic and other jacks topped the list of sources that produced lost-worktime injuries tied to objects striking workers. Trucks and tractors accounted for most of the vehicle-related fatalities, while carts, dollies, and handtrucks were responsible for most of the nonfatal injuries involving vehicles. In contrast to incidents involving trees, machinery, and vehicles, container incidents resulted in proportionately more nonfatal injuries (mostly from

Occupations of workers fatally struck by objects, 1996



SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, National Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, 1996

Fatal and disabling injuries to workers struck by objects

Source of injury ¹	Percent distribution		Median ⁴ workdays lost from disabling injury ³
	Fatal ² injuries (n = 579)	Disabling ³ injuries (n = 270,369)	
All primary sources of injury	100	100	4
Containers	8	16	4
Machinery	13	7	5
Material handling machinery	5	2	5
Parts and materials	22	25	4
Building materials—solid elements	12	11	4
Pipes, ducts, tubing	4	2	5
Structural metal materials	5	4	4
Wood, lumber	2	3	3
Machine, tool, and electric parts (e.g., saw blades)	4	3	4
Vehicle and mobile equipment parts (e.g., tires)	3	3	5
Persons, plants, animals, and minerals	31	4	4
Trees, logs	29	1	6
Structures and surfaces	4	6	5
Tools, instruments, and equipment	4	22	3
Vehicles	13	5	4
Trucks	6	1	4
Tractors	2	(5)	—
Other sources (e.g., bullets and metal chips)	3	7	2
All other and nonclassifiable sources	(5)	7	—

¹ Identifies the object that directly produced or inflicted the injury.
² Based on data from the 1996 BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, which covered all workers in the private and public sectors: Wage and salaried, self-employed, and family members.
³ Based on data from the 1995 BLS Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses, which covered just wage and salaried workers in private industries, excluding farms with fewer than 11 employees and private households. Disabling injuries are those that resulted in missed workdays.
⁴ Median workdays lost is the point at which half the injuries involved more, and half involved fewer days. Dashes indicate that medians were not computed.
⁵ Less than 0.5 percent.

NOTE: Totals for major categories may include data for subcategories not shown separately. Because of rounding, percentages may not add to 100.
SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

contact with boxes and crates) than fatal ones (commonly workers struck by falling hay and other bales or bundles).
Data for this report were derived from the BLS Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries and its companion Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses. Struck by object includes unintentional injuries produced by forcible contact or impact between the injured person and the source of the injury when the motion producing the contact, rather than the person, is primarily that of the source of injury. Excluded from this classification are highway and other transportation incidents; violent acts; and other “impact” injuries, such as falls, striking against objects, and being caught in equipment.
For more information on various types of fatal and lost-worktime injuries, contact the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Room 3180, 2 Massachusetts Avenue, NE., Washington DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 606-6175.
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Issues



in Labor Statistics

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Looking for a Job while Employed

About 6.0 million persons, 5.6 percent of wage and salary workers, actively looked for a new job in the 3 months prior to February 1995. Until recently, very little has been known about such job search among those who already are employed. How many *employed* jobseekers are there? How does the number vary by age, sex, education, and occupation? Answers to these questions were collected in a supplement to the Current Population Survey in February 1995.

Age made a difference

Among adult workers, the job search rate (the proportion of wage and salary workers who were actively searching for jobs) decreases with age. (See chart.) Young adults often hold a series of short-term or part-time jobs if they are attending school, and once they have completed their schooling, they are more apt to try different kinds of jobs early in their careers to learn which ones best suit their interests and abilities. As workers age, many find suitable job matches and become less likely to seek other employment opportunities. Also, older workers may become more reluctant to change jobs because doing so could jeopardize earnings and benefits such as pensions and paid vacations, premiums gained through experience that could be lost with a change in employers.

Among teenagers, school enrollment appears to limit the likelihood of searching for another job. Wage and salary

workers ages 16 to 19 who were not enrolled in school were twice as likely as those attending school to seek jobs. The difference was smaller among 20 to 24 year-olds. Regardless of age, men are more likely than women to search for another job while employed.

Education and job mismatches

In virtually every occupational category, employed persons with higher levels of educational attainment have the highest job search rates. In some occupations, these may be workers who have still not found the job commensurate with their level of education. For example, the job search rates for service and sales workers with a bachelor's degree were 12.5 and 7.6 percent, respectively, compared to 5.1 and 5.4 percent, respectively, for those with a high school diploma.

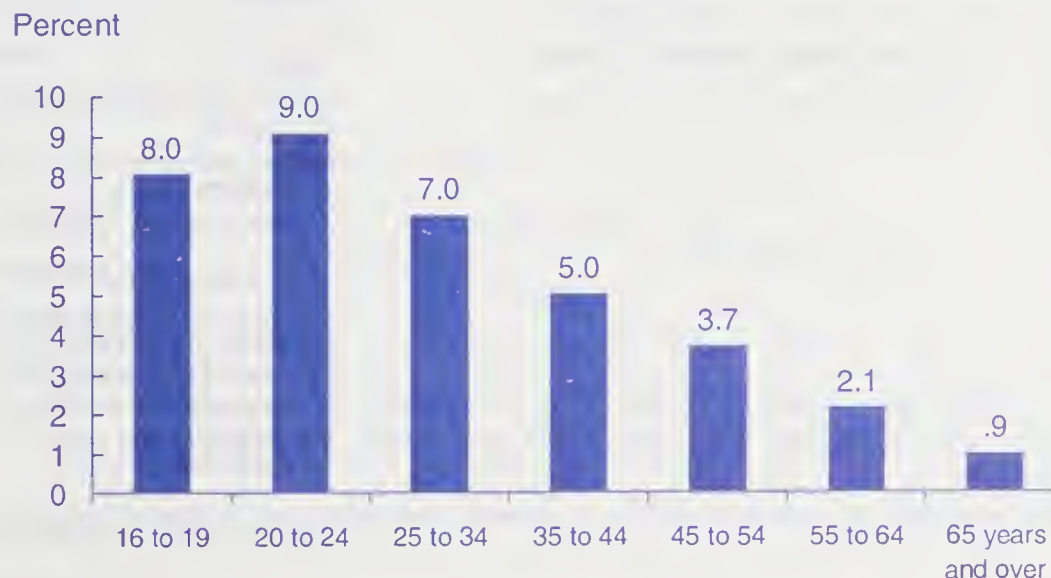
Among the major occupational groups, handlers, equipment cleaners,

helpers, and laborers had the highest job search rate, followed closely by workers in sales occupations. Workers in precision production, craft, and repair occupations demonstrated the lowest job search rate, while rates for workers in managerial, professional, and technical occupations were slightly below the overall average. (See table)

Additional information

In the February 1995 Current Population Survey, employed persons (except unpaid family workers) who had worked for their employer for at least 3 months were asked if they had looked for other employment since December 1994. Workers with less than 3 months of tenure were asked if they had looked for other employment since they started working for their employer. Those who responded affirmatively to either question were asked if they had been looking for a new job or an additional or second job. Questions

Percent of employed wage and salary workers who had actively looked for a new job in the prior 3 months by age, February 1995



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also were asked about job search methods. Passive job search methods include looking at ads or attending job training programs or courses. Active methods, include contacting employers directly, contacting public or private employment agencies, using the services of a school or university employment center, asking friends or relatives about available jobs, sending out resumes or completing employment applications, placing ads, and checking union or professional employment registers. This analysis focused on wage and salary workers, excluding the incorporated self-employed, who had actively searched for a new job. Data on job search among employed persons were collected again in February 1997. For additional information on job search of the employed and a technical description of the CPS, contact Timothy D. Consedine, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Tel. (202) 606-6378. Internet: Consedine_T@bls.gov Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577. This material is in the public domain and with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission.

Employed wage and salary workers who had actively searched for a new job in the prior 3 months by age, sex, occupation, and educational attainment, February 1995
(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic	Total	Actively searched for a new job	Job search rate
Age			
Total, 16 years and over	108,876	6,044	5.6
16 to 19 years	5,424	435	8.0
20 to 24 years	12,103	1,091	9.0
25 to 34 years	29,620	2,067	7.0
35 to 44 years	29,806	1,492	5.0
45 to 54 years	20,271	743	3.7
55 to 64 years	9,277	195	2.1
65 years and over	2,375	22	.9
Sex			
Men	56,883	3,343	5.9
Women	51,993	2,701	5.2
Occupation			
Executive, administrative, and managerial	13,773	727	5.3
Professional specialty	16,428	876	5.3
Technicians and related support	3,829	203	5.3
Sales occupations	12,042	804	6.7
Administrative support, including clerical	17,764	971	5.5
Private households	846	55	6.6
Protective service	2,169	126	5.8
Service, except private household and protective	12,393	774	6.2
Precision production, craft, and repair	11,229	502	4.5
Machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors	7,558	352	4.7
Transportation and material moving occupations	4,620	229	5.0
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, and laborers	4,676	328	7.0
Farming, forestry, and fishing	1,549	98	6.3
Educational attainment			
Less than a high school diploma	13,714	578	4.2
High school graduates, no college	34,959	1,555	4.4
Less than a bachelor's degree	32,705	2,093	6.4
College graduates	27,499	1,818	6.6
Bachelor's degree	18,453	1,203	6.5
Advanced degree	9,046	615	6.8

Issues



in Labor Statistics

U.S. Department of Labor
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Employee Medical Care Contributions on the Rise

More employees are paying more for their medical insurance than ever before. In fact, the proportion of those required to pay more has been on the rise for the past decade and a half, that is, over the 1980-95 period. Employees who obtain their medical insurance through their employer often contribute something to the cost of that insurance. By 1995, with the employer picking up the balance, two in three full-time employees with medical insurance contributed to the cost of single coverage and four in five contributed to the cost of family coverage.¹

In 1980, only a quarter of the employees who purchased medical care coverage through their employer were required to contribute for single coverage and just under half had to for family coverage. By 1982, a majority contributed for family coverage, and by 1991 a majority helped fund single coverage. (See chart.)

Workers enrolled in health maintenance organizations (HMO's) were more likely to pay towards the cost of their coverage than were those enrolled in other types of plans (single coverage: 76 percent in HMO's and 64 percent in others; family coverage: 86 percent in HMO's and 75 percent in others). (See table.)

Blue-collar and service workers were less likely to contribute towards either single or family coverage than their white-collar counterparts. In 1995, 56 percent of blue-collar and service workers helped pay for single coverage and 67 percent did so for family coverage. Among white-collar workers, 78 percent contributed towards single coverage and 87 percent did so for family coverage.

How much are they paying?

Average monthly employee contributions were almost \$34 for single coverage and over \$118 for family coverage in 1995. This was an 8-percent increase over 1993 for single coverage and a 10-percent increase for family coverage. The Consumer Price Index showed a similar increase for medical care costs during the same period.

For most employees (about 80 percent) the cost for coverage (single and family) was based on a flat dollar amount. Fifty-six percent of workers paid a flat monthly cost of between \$20 and \$49.99 for single coverage and 26 percent paid between \$100 and \$149.99 for family coverage.

Between 13 and 15 percent of the participants required to contribute toward single and family coverage did so based on the options selected under a "cafeteria plan" or employer-sponsored reimbursement plan.

Workers enrolled in HMO's paid about 10 percent more for single coverage and 20 percent more for family

coverage than did workers enrolled in non-HMO's.

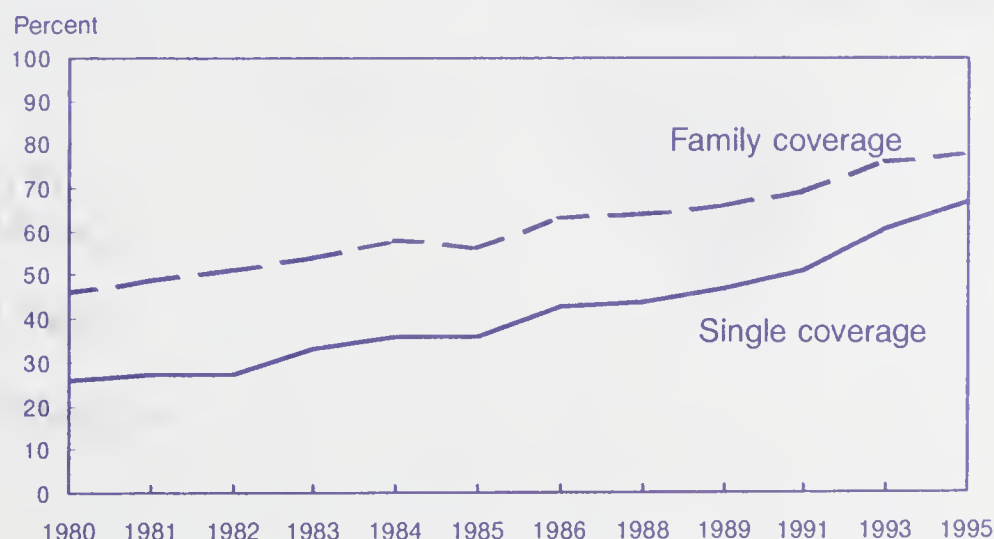
Since 1991, average required contributions for single and family coverage for blue-collar workers has been between 10 and 15 percent lower than the average required contributions of white-collar workers.

In 1983, the average employee contribution was about \$10 a month for single coverage and \$33 a month for family coverage. By 1995, employee contributions were three to four times as high. During this same time period, the Consumer Price Index medical care costs component doubled.

For additional information see Allan P. Blostin and Jordan N. Pfuntner, "Employee Medical Care Contributions on the Rise," *Compensation and Working Conditions*, Spring 1998, pp. 45-51.

For more information on the Office of Compensation and Working Conditions' programs, access the BLS Internet site at <http://stats.bls.gov/proghome.htm#ocwc> or e-mail ocwcstaff@bls.gov with your request.

Percent of medical care plan participants required to contribute to plan costs, medium and large private establishments, selected years, 1980-95



¹ Data in this report are from the Bureau of Labor Statistics 1995 Employee Benefits Survey of medium and large private establishments.

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Medical care benefits: Percent distribution of requirements for employee contributions by type of fee arrangement and occupational category of full-time employees, medium and large private establishments, 1995

Contributory status	All employees			Professional, technical, and related employees			Clerical and sales employees			Blue-collar and service employees		
	All plans	Non-HMO plans	HMO plans	All plans	Non-HMO plans	HMO plans	All plans	Non-HMO plans	HMO plans	All plans	Non-HMO plans	HMO plans
Number with medical care coverage (in thousands)	25,546	18,501	7,045	7,467	4,941	2,525	6,158	4,145	2,013	11,921	9,415	2,507
Single coverage												
Total with single coverage for medical care	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Employee contributions not required	33	36	24	21	22	18	24	26	21	44	47	32
Employee contributions required	67	64	76	79	78	82	76	74	79	56	53	68
Family coverage												
Total with family coverage for medical care	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Employee contributions not required	22	25	14	11	12	8	15	16	12	33	36	22
Employee contributions required	78	75	86	89	88	92	85	84	88	67	64	78

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

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Who's Not Working

The current economic expansion is entering its eighth year, and participation in the labor force has reached record levels. Nevertheless, in 1996, some 59 million people 16 years of age and over neither worked nor looked for work for the entire year. Most were younger people still in school. Some were retirees. But about a quarter of these persons were 25 to 54 years old, ages when most of their contemporaries were active in the labor market. (See chart.) This report focuses on the reasons these 25- to 54-year-olds were out of the labor market.

Reasons for not working

In 1996, 15.8 million people between the ages of 25 and 54 neither worked nor looked for work at any time during the year. Women comprised about 3 out of 4 of these persons, and the reasons they were not in the labor market differed markedly from those reported by men. The large majority, 70 percent, were taking care of home or family, 20 percent were either ill or disabled, and a little over 5 percent were in school. In contrast, among the 4 million men of these ages who neither worked nor looked for work, 8 percent were taking care of family or home and 63 percent were either ill or disabled. (See table.)

Income and education

Women who neither worked nor looked for work tended to be somewhat better off economically, and somewhat better educated than their male counterparts. For example, about 38 percent of the women had family or personal income of less than \$20,000 in 1996, compared with 60 percent of the men. At the upper end of the distribution, 21 percent of the women, but only 7 percent of the men, had incomes of \$60,000 or more.

With regard to education, about 25 percent of women nonworkers were high school dropouts compared with 33 percent of men. At the upper educational level, the proportions of nonworkers who were college graduates were similar, 16 percent of the women versus 12 percent of the men. For the most part, though, the proportions of nonworkers with college degrees were well below those of persons of similar ages who worked or looked for work in 1996—about 29 percent of both the men and the women.

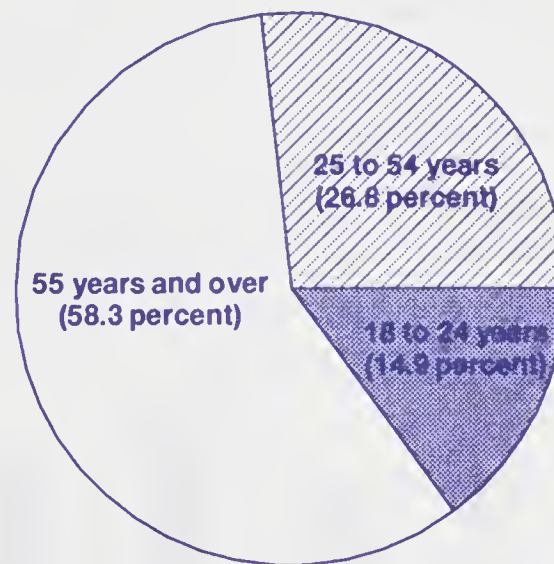
In summary, these nonworkers are a somewhat disparate group. The reasons they are not in the labor force differ. Many have relatively low incomes, yet a significant fraction are well off economically. Most are well educated, but some are not, making it more difficult for them to find employment. Moreover, these data do not measure such intangibles as

the willingness of individuals to forego current income in order, for instance, to stay home with their children, or go to school to improve future earnings capacity. Thus, it remains difficult to predict how changes in the conditions of employment—higher pay, better benefits, flexible hours—might affect the labor market activity of people in this group.

Additional information

Data for this report were collected in the March 1997 supplement to the Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly survey of about 50,000 households that the Bureau of the Census conducts for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These data differ from the monthly figures in that they reflect labor force activity during an entire calendar year rather than a single month. Persons who neither worked nor looked for work

Nonworkers who did not look for work by age, 1996



during the year were asked the main reason they did not work. The income measure used in this report is a hybrid; it consists of the family income for persons who were family members, and the personal income of those who were not family members.

For additional information on

nonworkers and a technical description of the CPS, contact Abraham T. Mosisa, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Tel. (202) 606-6378. E-mail address Mosisa_A@bls.gov

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Persons 25 to 54 years old who did not work or look for work in 1996 by reason, income, and sex, March 1997

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic	Total nonworkers		Percent distribution by income			
	Number	Percent	Under \$20,000	\$20,000 to \$39,999	\$40,000 to \$59,999	\$60,000 or more
Men, 25 to 54 years	4,038	100.0	60.2	22.1	10.9	6.7
Ill or disabled	2,527	62.6	61.9	21.2	11.6	5.4
Retired	188	4.7	33.8	28.5	19.4	18.2
Home responsibilities	341	8.4	54.8	28.8	8.8	7.6
Going to school	398	9.9	60.0	21.7	6.4	11.9
Could not find work	217	5.4	61.6	15.9	17.1	5.4
Other	367	9.1	67.1	22.7	5.5	4.7
Women, 25 to 54 years	11,717	100.0	38.2	24.5	16.0	21.3
Ill or disabled	2,291	19.6	62.1	20.1	8.1	9.7
Retired	371	3.2	29.0	19.8	20.0	31.2
Home responsibilities	8,064	68.8	30.3	26.3	18.6	24.8
Going to school	607	5.2	48.5	23.4	9.9	18.3
Could not find work	114	.7	81.3	7.9	5.1	5.8
Other	269	1.7	44.2	22.1	16.5	17.2

NOTE: Income refers to family income for those who were living with their families or to personal income for those not in families. Income refers to earnings, disability or unemployment benefits, interest

income, and other sources. Detail may not sum to totals due to rounding.

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Are Workers More Secure?

Between February 1995 and 1997, the proportion of workers holding contingent jobs declined slightly. (See table.) Some contingent jobs are explicitly temporary; others are held by persons who do not think they could continue to work for their employer for as long as they wish, even assuming their performance is adequate and that economic conditions stay the same.

The slight decline in the contingency rate could suggest that job security had increased somewhat over the 2-year period.¹ Confidence in that conclusion would be enhanced if the decline in contingency or "insecurity" were consistent with other data from the survey, were broadly spread among demographic and economic groups, and were supported by other measures of job security.

The data from the supplement support the finding of increased job security. In 1995,

¹ The Current Population Survey (CPS) supplements used to create these estimates were intended to identify contingent workers—those who do not have an implicit or explicit contract for ongoing employment. The questions in the CPS also provide a useful approach to measuring job security.

The definition of a contingent worker is any individual with an explicitly temporary job and anyone who does not think they could continue to work for their employer for as long as they wish, assuming their work performance remains adequate and economic conditions stay the same.

Wage and salary workers were asked the following questions:

- Some people are in temporary jobs that only last for a limited time or until the completion of a project. Is your job temporary?
- Provided the economy does not change and your job performance is adequate, can you continue to work for your current employer as long as you wish?

Self-employed workers and independent contractors were asked a separate set of questions and were classified as contingent if they had been working under that arrangement for a year or less and expected to remain in that arrangement for a year or less.

34.7 percent of contingent workers said they were in this type of job because of economic factors, such as the "hope that this job would lead to permanent employment." The biggest single economic factor, cited by nearly a quarter of all contingent workers, was that they "could only find this type of employment." In February 1997, fewer than one-fifth of contingent workers were in "the only type of work [they] could find" category.

While the number of workers taking contingent jobs for economic reasons was declining, the number and share citing personal reasons were rising. These reasons include family obligations, flexibility of work schedule, and being in school. In 1995, 41 percent of contingent workers reported such personal reasons for accepting a contingent job. By 1997, more than 48 percent of contingent workers cited personal reasons. These comparisons indicate that contingency was more likely to be voluntary in 1997 than in 1995.

The decline in contingency was widespread. Contingency rates for men and women declined by half a percentage point, in line with the fall in the total. Among the major race and ethnic groups, the rate for

black workers' fell by a full percentage point, while rates for white and Hispanic workers were virtually unchanged. Among the nine major occupational groups, contingency rates fell in six, rose in two, and was unchanged in one. Among the 10 major industry divisions, contingency fell in 5, rose in 3, and was little changed in 2. The fall in contingency was widespread among industries and occupations and evenly spread among men and women.

Job tenure. To analyze employment security, analysts often use statistics on tenure with one's current employer and data on job displacement. The most recent report on tenure found that the overall median tenure had risen slightly by the mid-1990s. The rise was very uneven across gender lines, suggesting that men may feel slightly less secure while women may feel a bit more secure. Tenure data, however, must be analyzed carefully in studies of job security. For example, in the mining industry, which has undergone major structural changes, employment dropped by 300,000 between 1983 and 1996 while median tenure rose from 3.4 to 6.1 years.

Displacement. Between 1991-92, about 2.8

Contingent workers as a share of employed by sex, race, and Hispanic origin, 1995 and 1997



rate fell from 3.9 percent to 3.2 percent. This decline may indicate some degree of improved job security. These data also conform to a tendency of displacement rates to rise and fall

with unemployment rates. For the first quarters of 1995 and 1997, the jobless rates were 5.5 and 5.3 percent, respectively. In comparison, the unemployment rate average 7.5 percent in 1992.

The contingent worker supplements to the CPS provide insights on workers' perceptions of employment security. Despite concerns about job security in today's economy, recent contingency data suggests job security is increasing. Rising security is supported by data on reasons for contingent work and is widespread among sex, occupation, and industry groups. A sense of rising security is also consistent with the low unemployment rate in 1997 and with earlier declines in displacement.

An earlier version of this report appeared in *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1998. For additional information on the contingent work force and job security, contact Richard M. Devens, Jr., Office of Publications and Special Studies, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Room 2850, 2 Massachusetts Avenue, NE, Washington, DC 20212. Telephone (202) 606-5865; E-mail: Devens_R@bls.gov

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Percent of workers holding contingent jobs by occupation and industry, February 1995 and February 1997

Occupation and industry	February 1995	February 1997
Total	4.9	4.4
Occupation		
Executive, administrative, and managerial	2.7	2.2
Professional specialty	6.8	6.1
Technicians and related support	4.2	4.8
Sales occupations	2.6	2.1
Administrative support, including clerical	5.8	5.9
Services	5.8	5.0
Precision production, craft, and repair	4.6	4.2
Operators, fabricators and laborers	5.4	4.4
Farming, forestry, and fishing	5.6	5.9
Industry		
Agriculture	5.0	5.3
Mining	2.7	3.6
Construction	8.4	7.1
Manufacturing	3.1	2.2
Transportation and public utilities	3.0	2.6
Wholesale trade	2.3	2.1
Retail trade	3.0	2.5
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2.0	2.1
Services	7.5	6.7
Public administration	3.6	4.2

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Persons Overboard/Sunk Vessels: Fishing Jobs Continue to Take Deadly Toll

Jobs in commercial fishing have consistently ranked among the most deadly. In 19th century Gloucester, Massachusetts, for example, the town lost each year about 200 fishers, 4 percent of its population, to the sea. Although fishing, like almost all other occupations, is considerably less dangerous today than in the past, it is still the single most deadly occupation according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries (CFOI).

Fishers face a risk of death on the job that is 20 to 30 times greater than any other single occupation. Between 1992 and 1996 (the latest year for which data are available), between 50 and 100 fishing deaths occurred each year. This translates into 140 deaths per 100,000 workers engaged in the occupation over the period. For occupations as a whole over the same period, the fatality rate was 5 per 100,000.

Vessel casualties

Fishing boats often travel great distances from home ports in search of their quarry, and far from safety. In the open seas, storms can have incredible destructive power that can easily send a typical fishing boat to the bottom. Ocean storms have been known to produce waves over 100 feet high—the dreaded “rogue wave.” But other perils can also sink or capsize a vessel: striking an underwater object, a rock for example, or colliding with another vessel in the fog, can have the same result.

Vessel casualties were the leading cause of fishing deaths, often involving multiple fatalities, from 1992 through 1996. Half of fishing deaths, 197, involved sinking, capsizing, collisions, explosions, and fires (see chart).

Person overboard

Rogue waves aren’t the only forces capable of pulling a fisher into the sea. Lesser waves may do the same thing. Going overboard also can be a consequence of tripping over or being caught in fishing gear. Or, slipping on a wet or icy deck can have similar consequences, or being pulled overboard by a hook caught in one’s clothing, or having a fishing line wrap around one’s legs are all examples of incidents classified as “falls from ship or boat.” These falls—almost a fifth of all fisher fatalities—accounted for 70 deaths during the 1992-96 period.

Diving and other fatalities

Sometimes crew members are called upon to untangle nets or lines snagged on the ocean floor or in ships’ propellers. Even experienced, certified divers hired to go after sea cucumbers and other sea life face hazards such as poor weather conditions, murky water, unexpected underwater currents,

snagged air lines, equipment malfunction, decompression problems, and dangerous marine life.

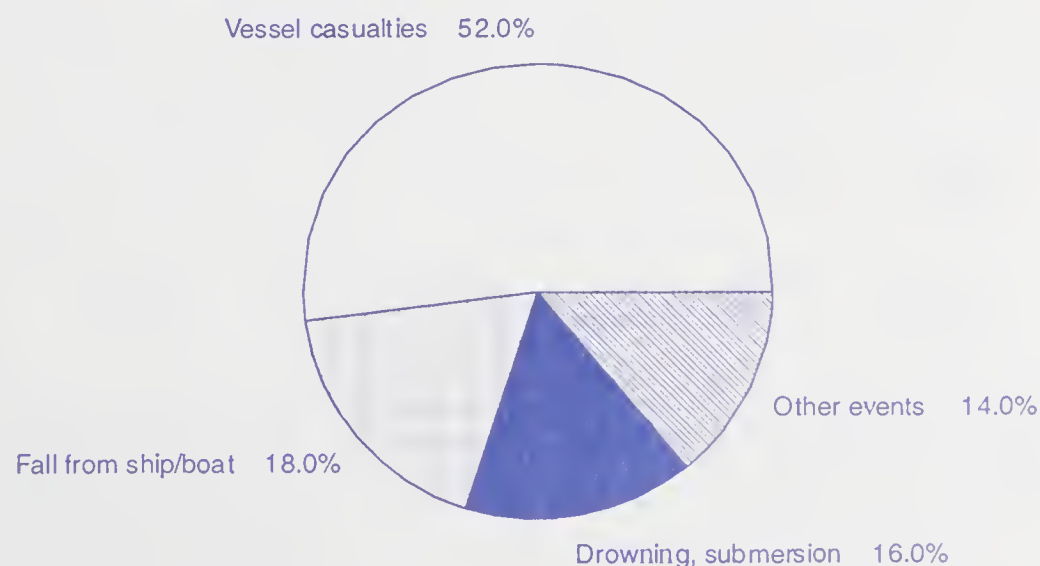
Drownings accounted for a sixth of the recorded fishing deaths between 1992-96. Most of these were diving related.

Other hazards related to the fishing industry, however, tend to be more typical of the workplace generally. These include electrocutions, being caught in winches and other machinery, homicides, and aircraft crashes. Deaths resulting from these causes accounted for the remaining fishing fatalities.

Other considerations

Fishing in cold waters is inherently riskier because of hypothermia. Fishers who go overboard into extremely cold water are at risk of hypothermia, as well, and can only last 6 to 7 minutes immersed before dying. Alaska, with one of the Nation’s smallest workforces, accounted for the largest number (112) of fishing deaths in 1992-96 (see table).

Distribution of fatal events for fishing occupations, 1992-96



NOTE: Number of fatalities = 380.

In Alaska, harvesting most commercial crab species takes place during the winter when air and sea temperatures are at their lowest; high winds, snow, sleet, ice, and high seas are common and daylight hours shorter.

Other cold-water States, such as Maine, Massachusetts, Oregon, and Washington, also had disproportionately high numbers of fishing deaths. The kind of marine life fishers go after also

plays a major role in fishing fatalities. For example, shellfishers are more at risk of dying on the job than are finfishers. During 1992-96, shellfishing with 160 fatalities, accounted for one-third more deaths than finfishing with 119 fatalities. These figures are even more startling because the shellfish-ing industry employed just three-fifths as many workers as the finfishing industry, and the weight of the shellfish catch was less than one-sixth that for finfish.

Fishing occupation¹ fatalities by State, 1992-96

State	Number	Percent
Total	380	100
Alaska	112	29
Massachusetts	32	8
Texas	31	8
Florida	26	7
Oregon	21	6
California	21	6
Washington	20	5
Louisiana	18	5
North Carolina	18	5
Maine	17	4
Hawaii	14	4
Other ²	50	13

¹ Includes fishers, captains, and other fishing vessel officers.
² These 50 fishing fatalities are distributed over the remaining 30 States and the District of Columbia.

They also include 7 fatalities occurring outside any States territorial waters. None of these States ac-counted for more than 5 fishing fatalities.

Additional information
This report was adapted from “Fishing for a Living is Dangerous Work,” *Compensation and Working Conditions*, Summer 1998. For additional information, contact Dino Drudi, (202) 606-6175, e-mail: *Drudi_D@bls.gov*
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Employment Growth Among Sectors in the United States, Japan, and Europe Based Upon Educational Attainment

Employment growth in the United States outpaced that of Japan and Europe between 1980 and 1996. The number of jobs in sectors requiring higher levels of education grew at roughly comparable rates in these economies. Thus, differences in job creation rates have often been driven by differences in sectors requiring lower levels of educational attainment.

In 1996, employment in the United States was more than 27 percent greater than in 1980. In Japan, employment grew about 15 percent over the period, while in the major economies of Europe, (France, West Germany, Italy, and the United Kingdom) there had been little net increase—about 3 percent. (See table.) Employment growth among these nations varied over time, however, and there were important compositional differences in terms of sectors.

In the United States, the period began far less auspiciously than it ended. From 1981 to 1982, employment actually dropped as a deep recession reached its trough. The economy recovered in 1983, and employment growth accelerated in 1984, then settled into a prolonged upward movement. In 1991, the economy again suffered job losses, followed this time by 2 years of sluggish growth before regaining a job growth rate that resembled the rates prevailing in the mid-1980s.

In Japan, there has been less variability of economic performance. There was no downturn of employment in the early 1980s and the period of moderate growth extended further into the 1990s before flattening into a prolonged period of sluggishness. In Europe, downturns in the early 1980s

and 1990s were less abrupt but more prolonged than those in the United States. As of 1996, there was little recovery in employment visible in the aggregate of the four major European economies.

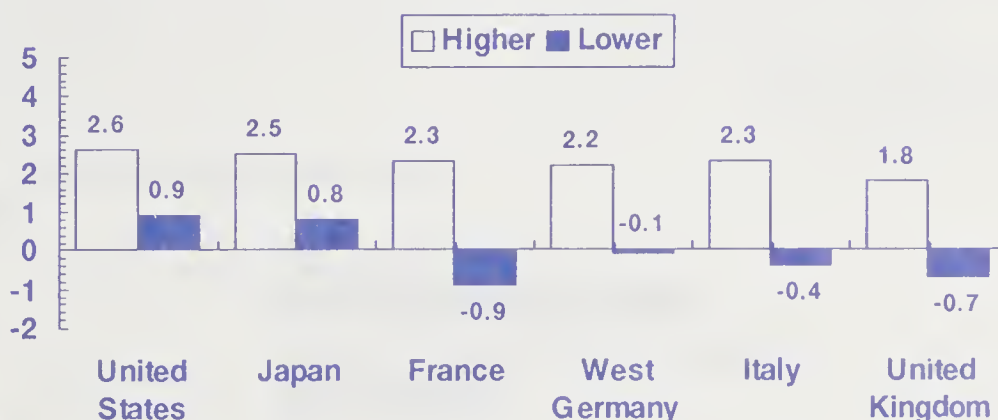
One interesting dimension underlying these comparative growth trends has been the level of educational attainment embodied in the jobs created. In the United States from 1980 through 1996, there was an annual rise of 2.6 percent in economic sectors with high educational attainment—those in which 30 percent or more workers have college degrees—and an annual rise of 0.9 percent in sectors with lower levels of educational attainment. In Japan there

was a similar pattern, although both growth rates were fractionally lower—2.5 percent for higher-attainment industries and 0.8 percent in lower-attainment sectors. (See chart.)

In Europe, there were somewhat different developments. Although rates of growth in sectors with higher educational attainment were somewhat lower in all four major economies than in the United States or Japan, the major difference was not found among such jobs. In all four of these nations, there was an absolute decline in employment in lower attainment sectors between 1980 and the mid-1990s. The number of lower attainment sectors in the United Kingdom, went down 0.7 percent per

Employment growth by higher and lower educational attainment sectors, 1980-96

Average annual percent change



NOTE: Data refer to 1980-93 for France and West Germany. Breaks in series for the United States are at 1990 and 1994. Higher educational attainment sectors comprise sectors where 30 percent or more of full-time workers have college degrees in the United States. Lower educational attainment sectors comprise sectors where less than 30 percent of full-time workers have college degrees in the United States.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

year from 1980 to 1996, and declined 0.4 percent in Italy. In France and Germany, where comparable statistics are available for 1980 through 1993, employment in the lower-attainment sectors fell by 0.9 percent and 0.1 percent per year, respectively.

As a result, the composition of employment registered different patterns of change across these countries. In Europe (excluding West Germany), the tilt toward sectors with higher educational attainment was quite pronounced. The patterns of composition showed marked increases, from 1980 to 1993 or 1996, of about 10 percentage points in the share of the employed that worked in sectors having higher concentrations of college graduates.

	1980	1993 or 1996
France	36.6	46.7 (1993)
United Kingdom	35.6	45.1 (1996)
Italy	27.8	36.9 (1996)

In the United States, Japan, and West Germany, the tendency to increased share of employment in industries requiring higher educational attainment levels was relatively muted. In the United States, 40.6 percent of the employed worked in sectors with high educational attainment. By 1996, this share was 47.4 percent. In West Germany, high attainment sectors accounted for 31.7 percent of employment in 1980 and 38.2 percent in 1993, the most recent year for which data are available. In Japan, 28.2 percent of the

employed in 1980 were in high attainment sectors. By 1996, this share had edged up to 33.9 percent, but Japan had exchanged places with Italy at the bottom of the table, despite having a faster growth rate of jobs in high-attainment sectors.

For additional information, call the Office of Productivity and Technology, Bureau of Labor Statistics (202) 606-5654, or send e-mail requests to: flshelp@bls.gov

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Employment in the United States, Japan, and Europe¹, 1980-96

(In thousands)

Year	United States	Japan	Europe	Year	United States	Japan	Europe
1980	99,303	54,600	92,800	1989	117,342	60,500	96,170
1981	100,397	55,060	91,860	1990	118,793	61,710	97,680
1982	99,526	55,620	91,350	1991	117,718	62,920	97,910
1983	100,834	56,550	90,920	1992	118,492	63,620	97,420
1984	105,005	56,870	91,250	1993	120,259	63,810	95,730
1985	107,150	57,260	91,800	1994	123,060	63,860	95,260
1986	109,597	57,740	92,530	1995	124,900	63,890	95,680
1987	112,440	58,320	93,360	1996	126,708	64,200	95,720
1988	114,968	59,310	94,920				

¹ France, West Germany, Italy, and the United Kingdom.

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Women Experience Fewer Job-related Injuries and Deaths than Men

Women incurred less than one-tenth of the job-related fatal injuries and about one-third of the nonfatal injuries and illnesses that required time off to recuperate in 1992-96. During this period women accounted for just under 50 percent of the Nation's workforce.

One explanation for this large discrepancy is that women are employed in relatively less dangerous jobs such as teaching or service occupations. Few women work in the construction trades or in other high-risk jobs where work is generally performed outdoors. But if more women enter high-risk occupations their risk of injury or death may increase.

Fatal injuries

Of the 32,000 job-related fatalities that occurred during the period 1992-96, slightly over 2,500 (8 percent) occurred to women. Two-thirds of these work injury deaths were attributed to homicides and highway incidents. (See table.)

Homicides. Women accounted for 20 percent of all job-related homicides in 1992-96. Most homicide victims were shot; but women were strangled or beaten to death relatively more often than men. Two-thirds of the homicides occurred in the retail and service industries.

About one-third of the women who were murdered on the job worked in sales occupations either as a cashier, supervisor, proprietor, or clerk. Robbery was the primary motive for these fatal assaults.

More than 25 percent of the female victims of job-related homicides were assaulted by people they knew (co-

workers, clients, spouses, or friends). About 16 percent of female homicides resulted from domestic disputes that spilled over into the workplace.

Highway vehicle crashes. Job-related highway incidents claimed the lives of 650 women during 1992-96, a little over 2 percent of all fatalities during the period. Health care and social service workers accounted for almost 20 percent of these deaths—about the same number as motor vehicle operators, such as truck and bus drivers and driver-sales workers.

Other incidents resulting in fatalities. About 15 percent of the fatal injuries to women resulted from other transportation-related incidents, such as aircraft crashes or being struck by a vehicle.

Falls accounted for 5 percent of the job-related fatalities among women, compared with 11 percent for men.

Another 5 percent of female workers' fatalities resulted from contact with objects and equipment, such as being crushed in running machinery or struck by a falling object. Exposure to harmful substances or environments, such as

electrocutions, drownings, and the inhalation of chemicals, accounted for 4 percent of the fatalities among women workers. Two percent of the women killed at work were victims of fire and explosions.

Comparing occupational fatality rates.

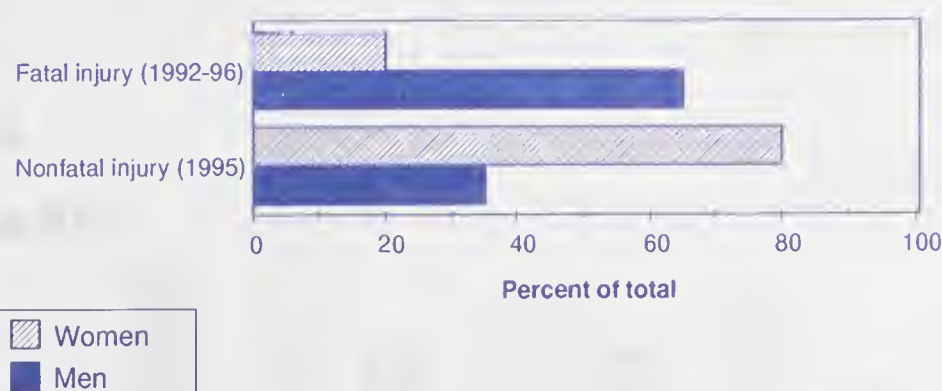
Besides incurring fewer fatal work injuries than men, women have much lower fatality rates than men. Employed women had a fatality rate of less than 1 fatal injury per 100,000 in 1996, compared with employed men who had 8 fatal work injuries per 100,000 for the same period of time.

Nonfatal injuries and illnesses

Women incurred slightly over a third of the 2 million cases of work-related injuries and illnesses resulting in days away from work that occurred among private sector wage and salary workers in 1995.

Sprains and strains among women accounted for 45 percent of their job-related injury and illness cases, compared to 42 percent among men.

Job-related assaults by sex



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries

Women accounted for more cases than men of carpal tunnel syndrome, tendonitis, respiratory system diseases, infectious and parasitic diseases, and disorders resulting from anxiety or stress.

Almost half of the female workers' injuries and illnesses resulted from bodily reaction or exertion, such as overexertion in lifting or pushing and repetitive grasping of handtools. Falls, primarily on the same level, and contact with objects (such as being struck by falling objects, striking against objects, or getting caught in running equipment) each accounted for about 20 percent of the job-related injuries among women.

Women were more likely to be assaulted than men and accounted for about 65 percent of the nearly 23,000 reported assault-related injuries. The manner in which women were assaulted varied. About 70 percent resulted in days away from work and occurred in the service industries such as nursing homes, social services, and hospitals. Another 20 percent occurred in retail industries—the most vulnerable workers being female stock handlers who incurred about 25 percent of these assaults.

For additional information

For additional information on this

material, see Guy A. Toscano, Janice A. Windau, and Andrew Knestaut, "Work Injuries and Illnesses Occurring to Women," *Compensation and Working Conditions*, Summer 1998. General and technical information is available on the Bureau's Internet site at <http://stats.bls.gov/oshhome.htm>, or via e-mail at cfoistaff@bls.gov

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Job related fatalities by event or exposure, 1992-96

Event or exposure	Women		Men	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,506	100	29,061	100
Homicides	973	39	4,173	14
Highway crashes	650	26	5,764	20
Struck by vehicle	156	6	1,683	6
Falls	137	5	3,081	11
Aircraft crashes	128	5	1,536	5
Contact with objects	125	5	4,862	17
Harmful exposures	102	4	2,868	10
Other	235	9	5,094	18

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, 1992-96

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Employer-sponsored Childcare Benefits

What contributions do employers make to caring for children while their parents work? In the United States, childcare benefits provided by employers remain relatively uncommon. Private industry extended these benefits to 1 out of 25 employees in 1995-96. The incidence of employer-provided childcare benefits, which was barely measurable for full-time workers in medium and large private establishments in 1985, has increased only slightly since the Bureau of Labor Statistics first began collecting comprehensive data on them in 1990. Childcare benefits reported in 1995-96 include employer-managed facilities (on and off the work site) and direct payments to other care providers.

Worksite coverage

Some employees are more likely than others to have employer-provided childcare benefits. For example, workers in large establishments (100 or more employees) were more likely to receive benefits than were workers in smaller establishments (7 percent versus 2 percent). However, full-time employees were no more likely to receive benefits than part-time employees were. Yet, among full-time employees, 15 percent of professional and technical workers in larger establishments have these benefits, compared with less than 1 percent of blue-collar and service workers in small establishments. There are only small differences in the incidence of childcare benefits for full-time employees covered by collective bargaining agreements versus those not

covered, and for those in the service sector of the economy versus those in the goods-producing sector. The incidence of childcare benefits differs little among the geographic regions of the Nation, and (based on 1994 data) employees in State and local governments were not appreciably more likely to have childcare benefits than the private sector employees.

BLS collects data on the incidence of three types of childcare benefits. Nevertheless, owing to the infrequency that these benefits are offered, only limited data are available.

- *Employer funding of childcare.* Employer makes full or partial payment for the cost of childcare services, regardless of location.
- *On-site childcare.* Employer manages a childcare facility at the work site.
- *Off-site care.* Employers, or a group of employers, manage a childcare facility away from the work site.

Most benefits are in the form of direct payments to care providers or to an on-site facility managed by the employer. Each of these options is offered to 2

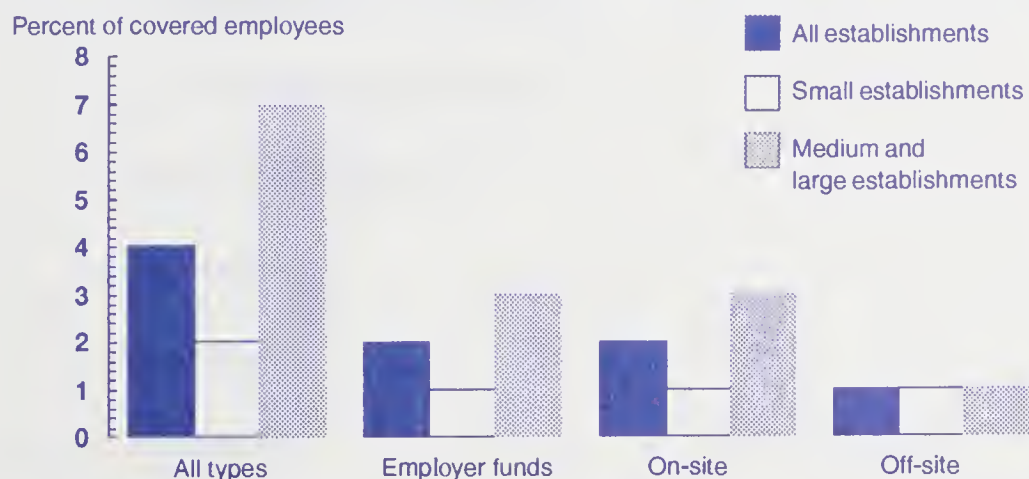
percent of the employees. The third option, employer-managed facilities away from the work site, is available to 1 percent of employees. In some establishments, employees are offered more than one option.

Reimbursement accounts

Employers can also assist parents in financing their childcare expenses by establishing reimbursement accounts. These are funds from which employees pay for expenses not covered by their regular benefits package. Reimbursement accounts usually are funded with employee pre-tax contributions. One employee out of 5 works for a company that has established a reimbursement account to cover expenses for dependent care.¹

¹ Reimbursement accounts can be part of flexible benefits plans or can be stand-alone plans. Both are governed by Section 125 of the Internal Revenue Code. Reimbursement accounts were available to 26 percent of employees in surveyed establishments. Three out of 4 of these employees had stand-alone plans. The estimate of employees with reimbursement accounts that cover dependent expenses is based on stand-alone plans.

Types of child-care benefits in private industry by establishment size, 1995-96



Absent any employer-provided childcare benefit or reimbursement account, taxpayers can offset some of the cost of childcare through income tax credits. Any married taxpayer filing a joint return or single taxpayer filing as head of household can take a credit of up to \$480 against their annual Federal income taxes for each of 1 or 2 children in care.

These data on the childcare benefits paid in private industry are from the BLS Employee Benefits Survey, an annual survey of the incidence and provisions of employer-provided benefits to private sector and State and local government employees. The survey collects information on the incidence of other benefits related to the family, such as paid and unpaid family leave, adoption assistance, long-term care, and flexible workplace plans. For more information, call (202) 606-6222, send e-mail to ocltinfo@bls.gov, or visit the Employee Benefits Survey home page (<http://stats.bls.gov/ebshome.htm>).

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Incidence of childcare benefits in private industry, 1995-96
(in percent)

Employees with childcare benefits	All establishments	Small establishments	Medium and large establishments
All employees	4	2	7
Part-time employees	3	2	6
Full-time employees	4	2	8
Professional and technical	10	4	15
Clerical and sales	4	2	7
Blue-collar and service	2	(¹)	3
Union	2	-	3
Nonunion	5	2	9
Goods producing industries	2	(¹)	4
Service producing	5	2	10
Northeast	6	1	12
South	4	2	7
Midwest	3	2	5
West	4	2	8

¹Less than 0.5 percent.

Dash (-) indicates zero.

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Spending Patterns of High-income Households

Although, less than 6 percent of the Nation's consumer units¹ (CUs) had annual incomes of more than \$90,000 in 1994-95, these households accounted for over 14 percent of total annual spending. High-income households spent about \$405 billion of the \$2.8 trillion total outlays of complete income reporter households.²

These high-income households, on average, spent more than other households³ (see table), and they allocated their expenditures differently (see chart). Households with annual incomes of more than \$90,000, allocated larger shares to food away from home; housing operations, supplies and furnishings; personal insurance and pensions; cash contributions; entertainment; and apparel and services. Households with lower annual incomes allocated larger shares to food at home, shelter and utilities, transportation, and health care.

Housing. High-income households are more apt to be homeowners (90 percent) than are other households (60 percent). Additionally, a far larger percentage of the high-income homeowners have mortgages. This may be due in part to a smaller number of retirees in the \$90,000 and over group, and the likelihood that many retirees have paid off their mortgages. On average, high-income households spent about \$15,000 more on housing than other households. However, the share of total spending on housing by the two groups was very similar—about 31 percent each.

Housing expenditures include those for shelter (an owned or rented dwelling) and utilities, and household furnishings and equipment, operations, and housekeeping supplies. And it is among these types of housing items that the higher-income groups and other groups begin to diverge. High-income households allocate smaller shares to shelter and utilities, and more to other household goods and services.

Food. Households with annual incomes of \$90,000 or more allocated just over 11 percent of their total expenditures on food and 51 percent of that on food away from home. The figures for the other households were 14 percent and 37 percent, respectively.

Transportation. On average, high-income households spent more than twice as much (\$12,521) on transportation than did other households (\$5,690). These outlays, however, reflected less than 16 percent of the high-income household's total expenditures and almost 19 percent of the other household's total spending. Households with annual incomes under \$90,000 allocated larger shares to specific transportation items such as vehicle purchases and the costs related to vehicle ownership, while expenditures on public transportation, fueled mostly by airline fares, were a larger share of higher-income budgets.

Health care. As with transportation, high-income households spent considerably more on health care, than did other households. Expenditure shares, however, were 3.4 percent

and 5.6 percent, respectively.

Personal insurance, pensions. This category of expenditures, the majority of which is composed of pension and Social Security contributions, garnered a considerable 16 percent share of the high-income household's spending compared to about 10 percent among other households. This difference may be related to demographics. Younger and already retired households tend to have lower incomes and are less likely to allocate funds to these items.

Cash contributions. High-income consumer units earmarked 5 percent of their expenditures to cash allotments to persons outside of the household, charities, churches, and other organizations. Other household groups made contributions totaling almost 3 percent of their expenditures.

For more information about the data presented here, contact Valerie Vannett in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys at (202) 606-6900, or by e-mail (Vannett_V@bls.gov). Consumer expenditure data also are available

Chart 1. Selected shares of total expenditures: Households with incomes of \$90,000 and over and those with less than \$90,000, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1994-95.

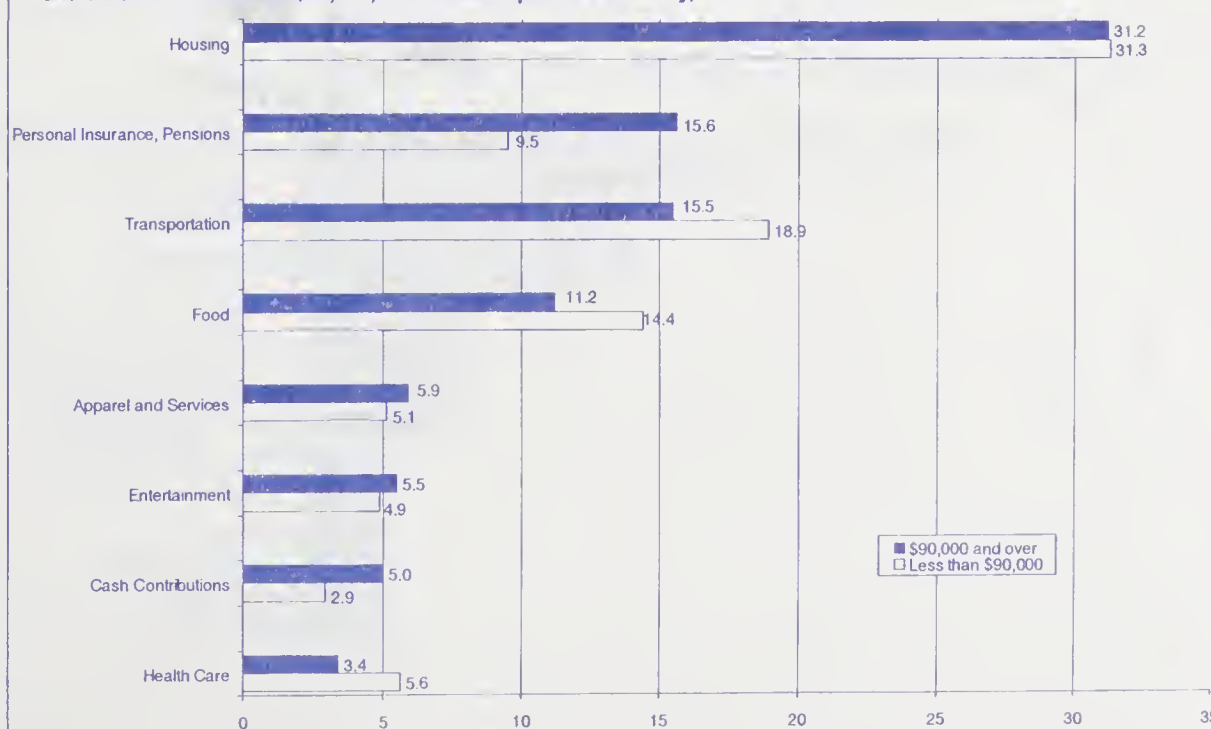


Table 1. Selected average annual expenditures and characteristics: Households with incomes of \$90,000 and over and those with less than \$90,000

Items	Less than \$90,000	\$90,000 and over
Number of CU's (000)	79,704	5,022
Income before taxes	\$30,220	\$136,898
Age of reference person	47.9	47.1
Average number in CU:		
Persons	2.5	3.1
Children under 18	0.7	0.8
Persons 65 and over	0.3	0.1
Earners	1.2	2.1
Vehicles	1.8	2.7
Percent homeowner:	61	91
With mortgage (percent of total)	36	75
With mortgage (percent of homeowners)	59	82
Renter	39	9
Black	11	4
White and other	89	96
College	46	82
Total expenditures	\$30,167	\$80,645
Food	4,331	9,010
Food at home	2,721	4,451
Food away from home	1,608	4,559
Housing	9,448	25,121
Shelter	5,251	14,532
Owned dwellings	3,080	11,887
Rented dwellings	1,864	940
Utilities, fuels, and public services	2,091	3,491
Household operations	423	1,876
Housekeeping supplies	412	967
Household furnish, equip	1,272	4,255
Apparel and services	1,540	4,732
Transportation	5,690	12,521
Vehicle purchases	2,547	4,964
Gasoline, oil, other	2,831	6,101
Public transportation	312	1,455
Health care	1,696	2,747
Entertainment	1,476	4,467
Education	389	1,816
Cash contributions	863	4,019
Personal ins, pensions	2,870	12,614

on the Internet (<http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>).

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Endnotes

¹A consumer unit is defined as members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least two of the three major types of expenses—food, housing, and other. Students living in university-sponsored housing are also included in the sample as separate households.

²All households spent approximately \$3.3 trillion. This summary deals only with complete income reporter households. A complete income reporter is a respondent who provided values for at least one of the major sources of income, such as wages and salaries, self-employment, and Social Security. (A complete income reporter may or may not provide a full accounting of all income from all sources.)

³Data for the groups with incomes of less than \$90,000 were not readily available and were computed such that: $N_1 = (T(W_1 + W_2) - W_2 N_2) / W_1$ where N_1 is the average value for the lower-income group, N_2 is the average value for the higher-income group, W_1 is the population size for the lower-income group, W_2 is the population size for the higher-income group, and T is the average value for all complete reporters.

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New Occupations Emerging Across Industry Lines

Emerging occupations may be entirely new, created by changes in technology, society, markets, or regulations. They may also be existing ones that have been substantially modified by the same trends, and are increasing in employment.

Emerging occupations are most often found in the most rapidly growing or changing industries. For example, the services division reported the greatest number of emerging occupations. (See table.) Within this division, the industry groups reporting the most emerging occupations were social services, health services, business services, and education. Quite often, such occupations are specific to an industry—*resettlement coordinators* are not often found outside of their social service niche, nor are *bus aides* found outside of educational services.

Some emerging occupations, however, are reported in a fairly wide range of industries. The chart shows the number of industry divisions containing establishments that reported the new or emerging occupations in 1996. Administrative assistants, for example, are found in eight industry divisions; convention managers in five; web masters in four; and quality assurance directors in two.

Although downsizing and technological innovations such as personal computers, voice mail, and the like have reduced the employment of secretaries, *administrative assistants* are being reported as new occupations by establishments in many industries. These workers typically

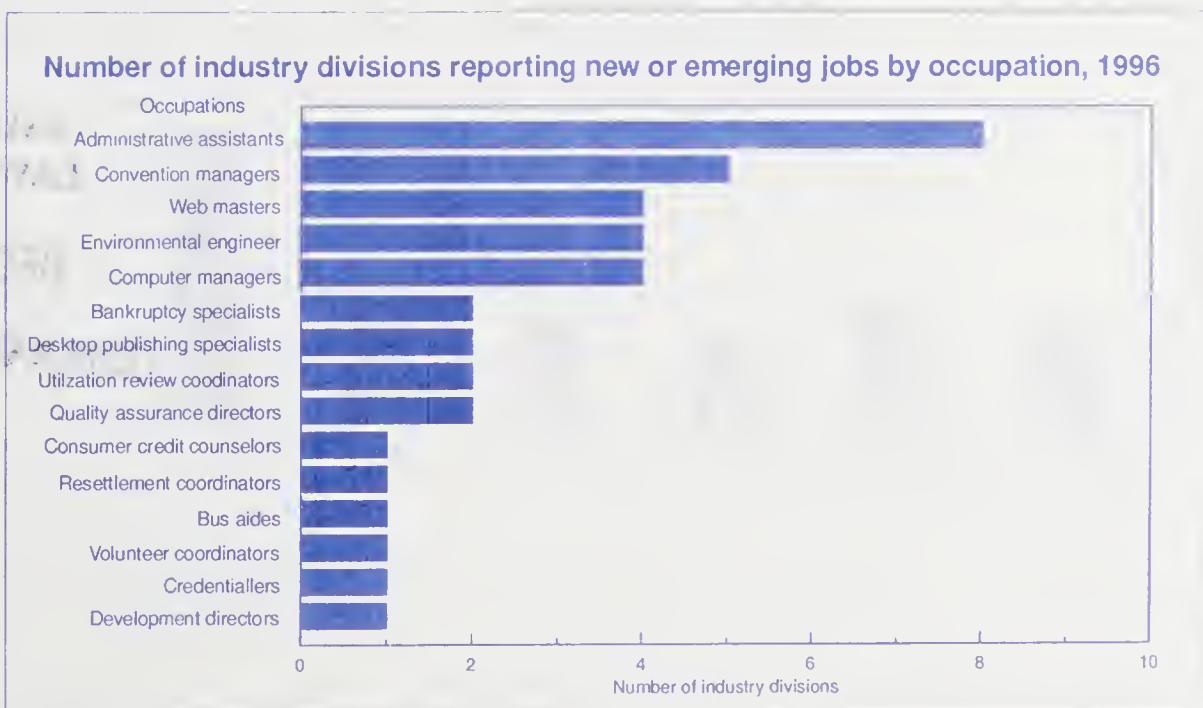
have more responsibilities than general secretaries, and often provide high level support to executive staff. Administrative assistants may also have office management functions, working with payroll, budget, or personnel records. Administrative assistants may also work independently on projects involving research and preparing outlines or presentation materials.

Another occupation that has emerged in a surprisingly wide variety of industries is *convention manager*. Convention planning personnel serve as liaison between their own organization and various outside vendors providing goods and services necessary for a convention. Convention managers coordinate activities of convention center, hotel, and banquet personnel in order to make arrangements for group meetings and conventions. Convention managers were most prominent in membership organizations, but were also frequently reported in business services, educa-

tional services, publishing; and social services.

Web masters or coordinators write the computer code necessary to publish or update text and images on Internet web sites. They design and maintain Internet web sites. As more and more organizations project a presence on the Internet, more of these World Wide Web workers are being reported. Establishments in the publishing, trade, business services, and membership organizations reported growing employment of Internet personnel.

Environmental engineers work to ensure compliance with environmental regulations and company policy. The work may involve the disposal of hazardous materials, monitoring emissions of pollutants, or safety of employees on the job. Environmental engineers may also work on environmental impact statements or environmental assessments. Some may work as contractors advising clients to ensure



compliance with environmental law and regulations. These environmental professionals were most often reported in the industries most affected by environmental regulations, such as paper; fabricated metal; industrial equipment; electric, gas, and sanitary services; construction; wholesale trade; business services; health services; engineering; and management services.

Technological change continues to create emerging opportunities in computer-related occupations. *Computer managers* are responsible for an organization's computer network. They are increasingly responsible for overseeing the installation, configuration, and maintenance of both software and hardware in a local area network (LAN), wide area network (WAN), or Internet/Intranet system. Computer managers monitor network usage to ensure that adequate computer service is available to all users. Their duties may also include keeping the computer network secure. Establishments in many industries, including printing and publishing, wholesale trade, depository institutions, and services, reported increasing

numbers of computer managers.

The Occupational Employment Statistics (OES) program has compiled this report of the emerging occupations that have been reported most frequently by respondents on the 1996 OES survey. The survey asks employers to report the number of people they employ in various occupational categories. In large establishments (more than 50 employees), employees who do not fit into an existing occupation are reported in "all other" categories. At the end of the survey form employers are asked to provide a job title and description for the "all other" occupations that they believe to be "numerically important or emerging due to technological change." Small establishments (fewer than 50 employees) are asked to report employment that does not fit into a specific category. OES staff reviews reports from all establishments and determines which job titles and descriptions represent emerging occupations. These occupations were among those reported in *Occupational Employment and Wages, 1996* (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, August 1998, Bulletin 2506).

Number of emerging occupations by industry division, 1996

Industry	Number
Mining	1
Construction	2
Manufacturing	6
Transportation, communications, gas, and electric	3
Wholesale trade	5
Retail trade	2
Finance, insurance, and real estate	6
Services	14

For more information on emerging occupations, contact the Occupational Employment Statistics Branch, at (202) 606-6569 or by e-mail (oesinfo@bls.gov).

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Labor-Market Outcomes for City Dwellers and Suburbanites

Suburbanites are more likely to participate in the labor force than are city dwellers, and their unemployment rates are usually lower as well. These labor-market outcomes for suburbanites and city dwellers hold across the major age, sex, race, and educational attainment groups. In addition, groups that usually have poorer labor market outcomes are overrepresented in cities.

This summary compares labor force participation and unemployment rates for persons living in the 25 largest central cities with those of persons living in the suburbs of those cities. The data (1997 annual averages) were collected through the Current Population Survey (CPS), a nationwide monthly survey of some 50,000 households. It should be noted that the CPS is a survey of households, not employers. Thus, the classification of people as city dwellers or suburbanites depends on where they live, not where they work.

Participation and unemployment

Regardless of age, sex, race, or ethnicity, people in central cities are less likely to be in the labor force than are those living in the suburbs. The differences are particularly striking among blacks. About 60.2 percent of blacks living in central cities were in the labor force in 1997, compared with 73.3 percent of those living in the suburbs. (See table.)

Education strongly influences labor-

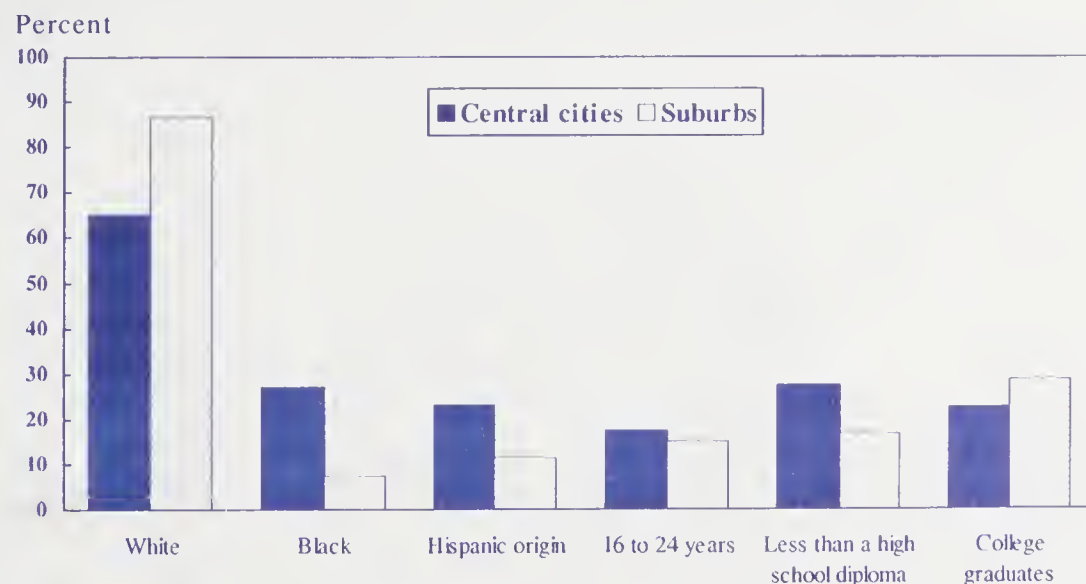
market outcomes. For all groups, labor force participation rates increased with education, but the urban-suburban differences remained. As the tabulation below shows, for example, 35.4 percent of black high school dropouts, 16 years of age and over, who lived in central cities were in the labor force, but for black college graduates living in cities the participation rate was more than twice as high, 82.2 percent. In contrast, among blacks living in the suburbs, 43.1

percent of those who had not graduated from high school were in the labor force, compared with 87.1 percent of those who were college graduates.

The unemployment rates for workers living in central cities were higher across the board than for members of the same demographic groups living in the suburbs. In both cities and suburbs, persons with more education were less likely to be unemployed, but, even among college graduates, those in cen-

	<i>Participation rates for blacks</i>	
	<i>Central cities</i>	<i>Suburbs</i>
Less than a high school diploma	35.4	43.1
High school diploma, no college	65.7	73.9
Some college, no degree	71.0	81.3
College graduates	82.2	87.1

Percent of the population living in the 25 largest central cities and their suburbs by selected characteristics, 1997 annual averages



Labor force participation and unemployment rates of persons living in the 25 largest cities and their suburbs, 1997 annual averages

Characteristic	Labor force participation rates ¹		Unemployment rates ²	
	Central cities	Suburbs	Central cities	Suburbs
Age and sex				
Total, 16 years and over	64.6	69.9	7.3	4.0
16 to 24 years	58.4	65.4	15.5	9.8
25 to 54 years	80.6	85.3	5.9	3.1
55 years and over	29.3	34.4	4.5	2.8
Men	73.3	78.2	7.2	3.9
Women	56.9	61.9	7.3	4.1
Race and Hispanic origin				
White	66.2	69.8	5.5	3.7
Black	60.2	73.3	12.5	7.6
Hispanic origin	64.3	71.3	8.1	6.1
Educational attainment³				
Less than a high school diploma	44.0	47.3	14.7	9.8
High school graduates, no college ..	64.0	65.8	8.0	4.3
Some college, no degree	74.6	74.9	5.8	3.6
College graduates	81.7	81.5	3.1	2.0

¹ Percent of population that is in the labor force. ³ Data refer to persons 25 years and older.
² Percent of labor force that is unemployed.

tral cities had a higher unemployment rate (3.1 percent) than those living in the suburbs (2.0 percent). The high concentrations in cities of groups that usually have poorer labor market outcomes than the overall population tends to exacerbate the overall city-suburban differences. For instance, in 1997, blacks and Hispanics represented 27.2 and 23.0 percent, respectively, of the civilian noninstitutional population age 16 and over in the central cities. In con-

trast, among the suburban population, the figures were 7.6 and 11.3 percent, respectively. (See chart.) In addition, 27.3 percent of the central city population did not have a high school diploma, compared with 16.9 percent of the suburban population. There also were relatively few college graduates in the cities.

For additional information on the employment characteristics of persons who lived in the 25 largest cities and the surrounding suburbs in 1997 and a technical description of the Current Population Survey, contact Stella Cromartie, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Tel: (202)606-6378. E-mail: Cromartie_S@bls.gov. Information in this report is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; TDD phone: (202) 606-5897; TDD message referral phone: 1-800-326-2577. This material is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission.

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Issues



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Auto Dealers are Fewer, Bigger, and Employ More Workers

New and used car dealerships are a fiercely competitive, cyclically sensitive segment of retail trade, but they show diverging trends in their number and in employment. From 32,000 in 1972, the number of automotive dealerships dropped to about 26,000 in 1996. In contrast, employment has grown from below 800,000 to over 1 million in the same period. As a result, the average dealership today is bigger, has more employees, and sells more cars. And as employment has increased, the occupational mix has changed, too.

Declining number of auto dealers

The number of new-car dealerships peaked at 51,000 in 1950. By 1996, this number had been cut in half. Not only is the number of dealerships in long-term decline, but it is also highly cyclical. The number of dealerships tends to fall sharply during recessions, much like employment in the industry and nationally. The greatest losses occurred during the recessions of 1973-75 and 1980-82; during the expansion of the 1980s, on the other hand, their number increased slightly, only to fall again with the onset of the 1990s downturn. But with their declining numbers has also come consolidation. For example, in 1996, more dealers sold at least 750 cars a year than those selling fewer than 150 cars a year (see tabulation). Twenty years earlier, there were almost four times as many very small dealers as very large ones.

<i>Number of vehicles sold</i>	<i>Establishments</i>	
	1976	1996
0-149	13,200	4,664
150-399	9,000	7,053
400-749	3,650	5,233
750 plus	3,450	5,801

Two related factors have driven this change in the auto retailing industry: the rising popularity of new-car leasing and the appearance of the high-volume auto "superstore." New car leases usually run 2 or 3 years, after which the vehicles become part of a large pool of used cars for sale, providing the stock for auto "superstores." Competing with the volume selling strategy of the superstores has been one of the primary factors behind the consolidation of traditional dealerships. And the trend is likely to continue as more and more high-quality, low-mileage, previously-leased late model autos move into the used car market via the superstore, fueling the increase in used-car sales.

Employment changes

In December 1997, new- and used-car dealers employed 1,056,000 workers, an increase of 34 percent over 1972. Although the increase may seem large, it pales when compared with the overall increase in the private sector (69 percent) and in all retail trade (90 percent). New- and used-car dealers accounted for just 5 percent of retail employment in 1997, down from 7 percent in 1972.

Like dealerships, employment is highly responsive to business cycles. (See chart.) Over the 1972-84 period, when there were three recessions, the rate of employment growth was slow (0.3 percent a year), with a net increase in jobs of only 33,000. Since 1984, however, employment has grown more rapidly, especially following the 1990-91 recession as noted in the tabulation.

<i>Period</i>	<i>Growth</i>	
	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Number</i>
1972-84	0.3	33,000
1984-928	64,000
1992-97	3.0	168,000

Chart 1. New and used car dealers, employment (1972-97) and number of dealerships (1975-96)



The occupational mix in automobile dealerships has changed in two significant occupations. The number of *technicians* has declined from 29 percent of auto dealership employment in 1980 to 24 percent in 1996. According to industry sources, this is partly due to the declines in the number of customer repair orders as vehicle quality has improved. In addition, competition from independent auto repair shops is on the rise and dealers continue to exit the body-shop business because of the high cost of the required equipment. In addition, new car warranty services are being provided by an increasing number of non-auto dealer repair shops. At the same time, the share of *supervisors and other workers* has grown from 23 percent of total employment to 27 percent.

Two other significant occupations found in auto dealerships—*salespersons* and *service and parts workers*—have shown virtually no change from 1980 to 1996. Salespersons accounted for 21 percent of employment in 1996 and 20 percent in 1980; service and parts workers were 28 percent in both years.

Rising used car sales

The demand for quality used vehicles is on the rise, fueling in part the rise in used car prices. For example, sales even at new-car dealerships are increasingly likely to be used cars. New-car dealers sold 11.9 million used vehicles in 1996, a 40-percent increase over the level recorded in 1985. The superstore, a new phenomenon, undoubtedly is beginning to have a substantial impact on used car sales as well. In contrast, over the same period, sales of new cars dropped 2 percent, totaling 15.1 million in 1996. At the same time, the prices of used cars have been growing faster than new-car prices, but the average retail price of a used car is still only a little more than half that of a new one. Data from the National Automobile Dealers Association indicates, in the following tabulation, that the price differential between new and used cars is substantial, easily reaching into the thousands of dollars, and growing slowly.

	1986	1996
Used auto	\$5,978	\$11,500
New auto	12,950	21,750
Ratio	0.46	0.53

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The employment data in this release are a product of the Current Employment Statistics program of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Additional information is available from "Auto Retailing: Changing Trends in Jobs and Business," *Monthly Labor Review*, pp. 19-22, October 1998. Contact Keith G. Keel at the Bureau of Labor Statistics, e-mail: Keel_k@bls.gov.

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Issues in Labor Statistics



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The Southeast is Maintaining Its Share of Textile Plant Employment

The Southeast¹ employs more textile workers than all other regions in the United States combined. About 50 years ago less than half of the industry's workforce was in the Southeast. By 1967, over 70 percent of the Nation's textile workers were employed there, a proportion that has held steady since then.

Southeastern textile plants employed 438,300 workers, on average, in 1997 (see table). North Carolina dominated the industry with 29 percent of total U.S. textile industry employment—as much as the combined textile employment of all States outside the Southeast region.

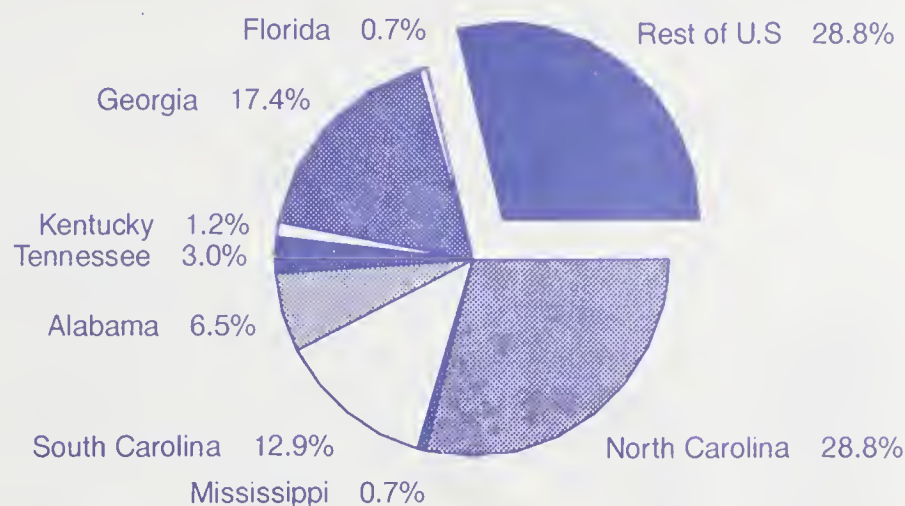
Despite the constancy in the share of textile employment in the Southeast over the past three decades, average employment declined from 1996 to 1997 by 12,400, or about 3 percent reflecting, perhaps, the continued movement of jobs to lower wage areas. North Carolina recorded the largest numerical decrease, 7,400 jobs, while Mississippi showed the largest numerical increase, 400 jobs. Kentucky had the largest percent decrease, 11 percent. Georgia, South Carolina, and Tennessee also recorded decreases over the year. Mississippi's employment increased 10 percent, while textile employment in Alabama remained stable.

Historically, earnings for textile workers in the Southeast have lagged behind the industry's national average. In 1997, their average hourly earnings in the Southeast rose 2.5 percent to \$9.86, whereas the U.S. average increased 3.5 percent to \$10.03. The average hourly earnings in the Southeast were 98 percent of national hourly rates. Textile plant employees in the Southeast worked an average of 41.5 hours per week in 1997, an increase of 1.5 percent over 1996. In comparison, average weekly hours for all U.S. textile workers rose 2.0 percent to 41.4. Florida reported average weekly hours of 42.9, the highest in the Southeast. Kentucky had the largest in-

crease in average weekly hours, rising 4.3 percent.

In 1997, average weekly earnings in the textile industry rose faster nationally than in the Southeast, resulting from faster growth for both average hourly earnings and average weekly hours. Southeast average weekly earnings rose 4.0 percent to \$409.19, while nationally textile industry earnings grew 5.5 percent to \$415.24. Florida continued to have the highest earnings in the Southeast. Both hourly earnings and weekly hours in Florida grew in 1997, resulting in weekly earnings of \$526.81. Among the southeastern States, Kentucky with wages traditionally below

Percent of textile employment, Southeastern States and rest of the United States, 1997



¹ The Southeast includes Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

the national average, continued to record the lowest average weekly earnings at \$384.40, despite increasing 11.6 percent in 1997.

Although the Southeast continues to maintain a large share of textile employment, the relative importance of the textile industry to the Southeast's total manufacturing employment has declined. From 1979 through 1997, manufacturing employment in the Southeast increased by 2.8 percent while textile employment declined by 27.9 percent. As a result, textile employment as a percent of overall manufacturing employment in the Southeast has dropped from 17 percent in 1979 to 12 percent in 1997.

Technical Notes

All data in this release are adjusted to the first quarter 1997 benchmark levels, and, therefore, are not comparable with data previously published. The data were compiled by State employment security agencies in cooperation with the Bureau of Labor Statistics. They relate to the total number of full-

and part-time textile workers in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee. Data are based on the 1987 *Standard Industrial Classification Manual*. A brief technical description of statistics based on establishment records is presented in the explanatory notes of the monthly periodical, *Employment and Earnings*, a publication of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

For additional information on employment trends in the Southeast, con-

tact the BLS Atlanta Regional Office at (404) 331-3415. Employment information on southeastern States is regularly updated on the Atlanta Regional Office Internet site, <http://stats.bls.gov/ro4home.htm>.

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Southeast textile employment, hours, and earnings, 1997

Area	Employment (in thousands)	Hourly earnings	Weekly hours	Weekly earnings
United States	615.5	\$10.03	41.4	\$415.24
Southeast	438.3	9.86	41.5	409.19
Alabama	39.9	9.73	42.3	411.58
Florida	4.4	12.28	42.9	526.81
Georgia	107.3	10.16	42.1	427.74
Kentucky	7.6	9.33	41.2	384.40
Mississippi	4.6	9.50	42.0	399.00
North Carolina	177.0	9.76	41.1	401.14
South Carolina	79.1	9.79	41.1	402.37
Tennessee	18.4	9.59	41.7	399.90

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 99-4 March 1999

Computer Ownership Up Sharply in the 1990s

Graphical user interfaces, multimedia CD-ROMs, and the Internet have increased accessibility and people's understanding of computers. And greater understanding has brought substantially greater ownership. Between 1990 and 1997, the percentage of households¹ owning computers increased from 15 percent to 35 percent. During this time, the amount spent by the average household on computers and associated hardware more than tripled. This report briefly examines the demographics of computer ownership (also see table) as reported by households participating in the interview component of the Bureau's Consumer Expenditure survey.²

Education A household's level of education significantly affects computer ownership: Those households with the highest levels of education had the greatest percentage of computer ownership. In 1997,

66 percent of American households whose reference person³ had attended graduate school reported owning a computer, compared with less than 12 percent of those headed by one who did not graduate from high school. College graduates had the largest increase in ownership, more than doubling from 24 percent in 1990 to 56 percent in 1997 (see chart). High school graduates also showed a significant increase in computer ownership, from 9 percent in 1990 to 23 percent in 1997.

Age. Consumer units in the age 45-54 group were the most likely to own a PC, with a 46-percent ownership rate in 1997, an increase of 26 percentage points from 1990. As a result, the 45-54 age group had surpassed the 35-44 age group, which was most likely to own a computer in 1990. By 1997, the 35-44 age group was in second place, with 44 percent of them owning computers. Relatively few consumer units

over the age of 65 owned computers in either year, but consumer units with reference persons aged 55-64 had the largest increase in computer ownership.

Race. Between 1990 and 1997, all racial groups increased their ownership of personal computers, however, there was a large disparity among the different groups in both years. Ownership among blacks more than doubled between 1990 and 1997, from 7 percent to 18 percent. Asians showed the largest percentage point change in ownership, growing from 25 percent in 1990 to 49 percent in 1997. In both years, Asians showed the highest ownership and blacks the lowest ownership among all the groups. Ownership among whites grew from 16 percent in 1990 to 36 percent in 1997.

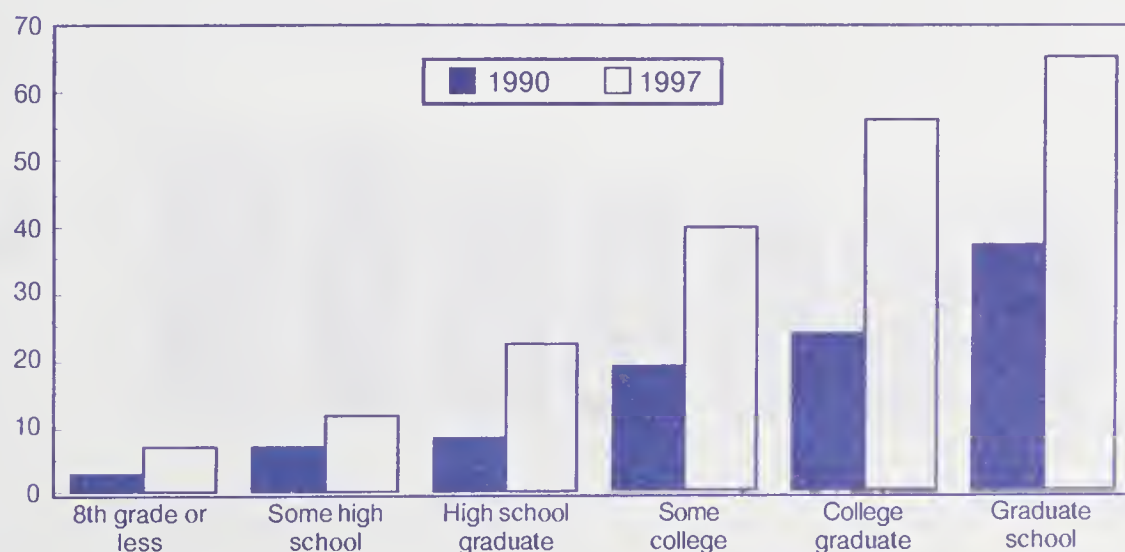
Income. It's almost axiomatic that the highest income groups will have the largest percentage of computer ownership. Al-

¹ In this report, a "household" is defined as a consumer unit that includes members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least two out of three major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses. Students living in university-sponsored housing are also included in the sample as separate consumer units. The terms "consumer unit" and "household" are used interchangeably in this summary.

² Inventory of durable goods is collected during the first interview; any purchases of computers after the first interview are not reflected in these data.

³ The reference person is the first member mentioned by the respondent when asked to "Start with the name of the person or one of the persons who owns or rents the home." It is with respect to this person that the relationship of other consumer unit members is determined.

Percent of households owning computers by education level of the reference person, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1990 and 1997



most two-thirds of the households in the top 20-percent income group (quintile 5)⁴ own computers, as do almost half in the second highest income group. The second highest income group also showed the fastest growth in ownership, more than doubling between 1990 and 1997. Households in the lowest two income groups also had the lowest rate of computer ownership, with less than 1 in every 5 owning PCs in 1997. But they also showed significant growth in computer ownership—almost tripling over the 1990-97 period—as computer prices have declined.

Region. Over two-fifths of the households in the West owned computers, more than in any other region. The Midwest and the Northeast mirrored the national average, with about one third of the consumer units

⁴ Complete income reporters are ranked in ascending order, according to the level of total before tax income reported by the consumer unit. The ranking is then divided into five equal groups. Incomplete income reporters are not ranked and are shown separately.

owning computers. At slightly less than 30 percent, the South's share of PC ownership was the lowest among the regions, but only marginally so when compared with the Midwest (see table). The ownership patterns by region in 1997 also existed in 1990, with similar growth rates in ownership across the regions.

Additional information

For more information about the data presented here, contact Tom Rubey in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys at (202) 606-6900, or by E-mail at Rubey_T@bls.gov. To find Consumer Expenditure Survey data on the Internet, go to <http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS Consumer Expenditure Survey home page.

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Percent of households owning computers by demographic characteristics, Consumer Expenditure Interview Survey, 1990 and 1997

Characteristic	1990	1997
All consumer units	15.2	34.6
Education		
8th grade or less	2.8	6.9
Some high school	6.9	11.5
High school graduate	8.6	22.5
Some college	19.4	39.9
College graduate	23.7	56.2
Graduate school	37.2	65.6
Age		
Less than 25	13.4	31.6
25-34	14.8	37.6
35-44	24	44
45-54	20	45.8
55-64	12.3	32.2
65-74	6.3	15.7
75 or over	2.3	6.6
Race		
White	16.0	36.1
Black	6.7	17.9
Asian	25.0	49.1
Income		
Quintile 1	6.9	17.1
Quintile 2	6.6	17.8
Quintile 3	11.7	28
Quintile 4	17.7	44.6
Quintile 5	33.2	65.4
Region		
Northeast	15.3	36.2
Midwest	13.3	32.6
South	12.8	29.8
West	21.0	41.2

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 99-5 May 1999

What Women Earned in 1998

Women who work full time, regardless of age, race, or educational attainment, earn less, on average, than men. Overall, in 1998, median weekly earnings of female full-time wage and salary workers were \$456 compared to \$598 for men.

Twenty years earlier the pay differential was even greater, however. In 1979, women who were full-time wage and salary workers had earnings that were only about three-fifths those of men. By 1998, however, women's earnings were approximately three-quarters those of men.

For some demographic groups, the gender differences in earnings were quite small; for others they were relatively large. Black and Hispanic women, for example, had earnings that were around 85 percent those of their male counterparts; among whites, the ratio was about 76 percent. Young women and men (those under age 25) had fairly similar earnings (young women's earnings were about 91 percent those of men's). In contrast, women's earnings were much lower than men's in older age groups.¹

This report presents the highlights of pay differences between female and male full- and part-time workers and those paid by the hour in 1998.

Full-time workers

Age. The difference between women's and men's earnings is relatively large among older workers. For full-time wage and salary work-

ers ages 45 to 54, women's median earnings were 70.5 percent of men's; for 55- to 64-year-olds, the earnings ratio was 68.2 percent. In contrast, among workers 20 to 24 years old, women's earnings were 89.4 percent those of men. The earnings ratio for teenagers (16 to 19 years) was 88.5 percent.

Women in the 45-to 54-year age group earned the most (\$516), followed by 35- to 44-year-olds (\$498). Men's earnings also peaked among 45-to 54-year-olds at \$732.

Race. White workers of either gender earned more than their black or Hispanic counterparts. The differences among women, however, were much smaller than among men. White women's earnings (\$468) were 17 percent higher than black women's (\$400), and almost 39 percent higher than those for Hispanic women (\$337). In contrast, white men's earnings (\$615) were 31.4 percent higher than the earnings of their black counterparts (\$468) and 57.7 percent more than those of Hispanic men (\$390). Since 1979, inflation-adjusted earnings for white women have increased almost 16 percent, while black women's real earnings increased 7.5 percent.

Earnings and education. Median weekly earnings for female college graduates age 25 and over (\$707) were two-and-a-half times

those for women without a high school diploma (\$283).

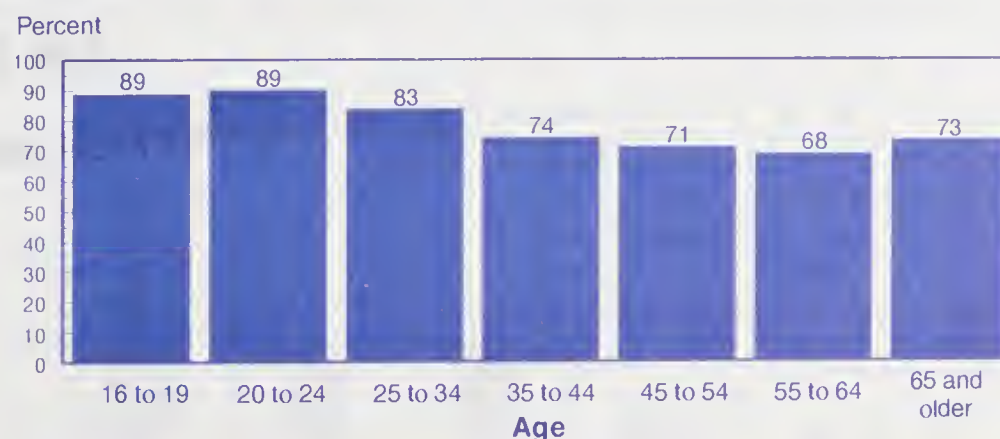
Female college graduates have fared better with regard to earnings growth than their male counterparts. Earnings for women with college degrees have increased 21.7 percent since 1979 on an inflation-adjusted basis. Real earnings of male college graduates increased less than 8 percent over the same time period. As a result, the female-to-male earnings ratio of college graduates rose from 66.6 percent in 1979 to 75.3 percent in 1998.

Occupation. Women working full-time in professional specialty occupations earned \$682 in 1998, more than women employed in any other major occupation category.

In 1998, 46 percent of full-time workers in the relatively high paying executive, administrative, and managerial occupations were women. This was up from 34 percent in 1983, the first year for which comparable data are available. Despite changes in occupational employment for women, they still tend to work in very different jobs than men. For example, in 1998 men were about nine times as likely as women to be employed in precision production, craft, and repair occupations (where earnings are somewhat above the median), while women were four times as likely to work in administrative support occupations (where pay is typically low).

¹ Earnings data in this report are from the Current Population Survey (CPS), a national monthly survey of approximately 50,000 households conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The earnings data are collected from one-fourth of the CPS monthly sample. For a detailed description of the source of the data and an explanation of the concepts and definitions used, please see the Technical Note included at the end of the BLS periodical, *Employment and Earnings*.

Women's median weekly earnings as a percent of men's by age, 1998



NOTE: Data are for full-time workers only.

Part-time workers

Women who worked part time—that is, less than 35 hours per week—represented 25.8 percent of all female wage and salary workers in 1998. In contrast, 10.7 percent of men in wage and salary jobs worked part-time.

Female part-time workers' median weekly earnings were \$161, approximately 35 percent of the median for women who worked full time. At \$146, earnings for male part-time workers were about 9 percent lower than female part-timer's earnings. This was because more than half the male part-time workers were under 25 years old—ages where earnings tend to be low—compared to less than a third of the female part timers.

Workers paid by the hour

Women who worked at jobs in which they were paid by the hour had median hourly earnings of \$8.24 in 1998. About 64 percent of women employed in wage and salary jobs were paid on an hourly basis.

In 1998, about 8 percent of women who were paid hourly rates had earnings at or below the prevailing Federal minimum wage

of \$5.15. This compares to approximately 5 percent of men paid by the hour.

Age. Among women paid hourly rates, the proportion earning the minimum wage or less varies considerably by age. Teenagers were the most likely to have earnings at or below the minimum, while those 45 to 54 years old were the least likely.

Additional Information

For more information about the data presented in this report, contact Mary Bowler in the Division of Labor Force Statistics at (202) 606-6378, or by E-mail at Bowler_M@bls.gov. *Highlights of Women's Earnings in 1998* (BLS Report 928, April 1999), provides more extensive tabular material. This report is available on the BLS Internet site,

<http://stats.bls.gov/pdf/cpswom98.pdf>.

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Women's and men's median weekly earnings by selected characteristics, 1998

Characteristic	Women	Men
Age		
Total, 16 years and over	\$456	\$598
16 to 19	249	281
20 to 24	319	357
25 to 34	451	544
35 to 44	498	677
45 to 54	516	732
55 to 64	476	699
65 and older	350	482
Race and Hispanic origin		
White	468	615
Black	400	468
Hispanic origin	337	390
Educational attainment		
Less than a high school diploma	283	383
High school graduates, no college	396	559
Some college or associate degree	476	643
College graduates, total	707	939

NOTE: Earnings data are 1998 median annual averages for full-time wage and salary workers. Educational attainment data are for persons 25 years and older.

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 99-6 July 1999

What the Nation Spends on Health Care: A Regional Comparison

The average household in the United States spent just over \$700 more on health care in 1997 than in 1987, \$1,841 compared to \$1,135, respectively.¹ During this period, health care expenditures rose at a greater rate in the Midwest than in the other major regions. Midwestern consumer units spent 73 percent more on health care in 1997 than in 1987, compared to increases in the Northeast, South, and West of 63, 58, and 56 percent, respectively. Households in the Midwest and South spent an average of about \$1,900 on health care in 1997, between 6 and 11 percent more than their counterparts in the Northeast and West.

The change in the *share* of total expenditures allocated to health care and its subcomponents—health insurance, medical services, prescription and nonprescription drugs, and medical supplies—reflects changes in the spending habits of consumer units over this period. In 1987, households allocated a greater share of health care expenditures to medical services than to health insurance; by 1997, health insurance was the largest component of health care. Data from the Consumer Expenditure Survey provide a means to track regional expenditure patterns among the Nation's four census regions, and the dis-

tribution of health care dollars among the subcomponents.

Health care expenditures, as a *share* of total average annual expenditures, rose in all regions to their highest levels in 1993 before declining somewhat. Despite the declines, the shares still were higher in 1997 than in 1987 in all four regions. Consumer units in the South and Midwest spent proportionately more for health care than their counterparts in the West and Northeast between 1987 and 1997. Households in the South, however, allocated the greatest share of average annual expenditures to health care throughout the decade.

Shifting shares

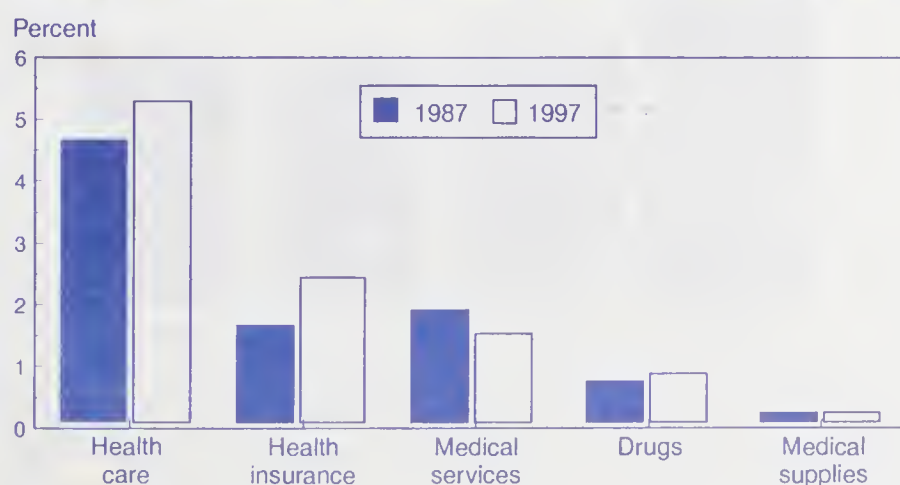
As the share of dollars going to health care increased in the regions, the distribution of health care dollars among the subcomponents shifted. Between 1987 and 1997, health insurance supplanted health services as the largest subcomponent of health care expenditures in all regions. The growth of insurance expenditures contributed significantly to the growth in expenditures for

health care in general, and may reflect changes in the way insurance costs are shared between employers and their employees. In 1997, health insurance comprised between 43 and 51 percent of total health care expenditures across the regions compared to between 33 and 36 percent in 1987. (See table 1.) Expenditures on health insurance increased most rapidly in the Northeast. In 1987, households in that region spent 33 percent of their annual health care budget on health insurance; this proportion grew to 51 percent in 1997. Health insurance grew at the slowest rate in the West, where the proportion of health care dollars increased about 11 percent. The shares for both the Midwest and South rose about 13 percent.

While the out-of-pocket share of health care dollars going to insurance was increasing, the share spent on medical services declined throughout the Nation. The proportion spent for medical services decreased in the Northeast, from 44 percent of the total health care budget in 1987 to 28 percent in 1997. This same trend exists

¹ In this report, a consumer unit is defined as a household that includes members related by blood, marriage, adoption or other legal arrangement. A consumer unit may also include a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least two out of three major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses. The terms "consumer unit" and "household" are used interchangeably in this summary.

Percent of total expenditures allocated to health care components, 1987 and 1997



in the Midwest, South, and West, with each region reporting decreases of at least 10 percent.

The share of total health care devoted to prescription and nonprescription drugs varied by region, ranging from 14 percent in the Northeast to 19 percent in the Midwest and South in 1997. There was little change in the shares between 1987 and 1997, except in the Northeast where households spent proportionately less on drugs in 1997 than in 1987.

Medical supplies accounted for the smallest share of total health care costs in

all regions. Expenditure shares ranged from 5 percent in the South in 1997 to 7 percent in the Northeast. There was little change over the period in the regions in the shares spent on this subcomponent.

Additional information

For more information about the data presented here, contact Ginger Mortimer in the Office of Economic Analysis and Information, Kansas City Regional Office, Bureau of Labor Statistics at (816) 426-6651, or by e-mail at mortimer_g@bls.gov. Data highlighted here are from the Con-

sumer Expenditure Survey published annually by the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, phone (202) 606-6900. To find Consumer Expenditure data on the Internet, go to <http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS Consumer Expenditure Survey homepage. Material in this publication is in the public domain, and with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.

Table 1. Expenditures by region and percent distribution of health care dollars, 1987 and 1997

Expenditure category	All consumer units		Midwest		West		Northeast		South	
	1987	1997	1987	1997	1987	1997	1987	1997	1987	1997
Average annual expenditures	\$24,414	34,819	23,021	33,791	27,309	39,037	25,079	36,070	\$23,292	32,226
Health care	\$1,135	1,841	1,099	1,903	1,152	1,793	1,051	1,709	1,204	1,902
Health care (percent of total average annual expenditures)	4.6	5.3	4.8	5.6	4.2	4.6	4.2	4.7	5.2	5.9
Percent distribution										
Health care	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Health insurance	34.5	47.9	35.3	47.9	32.6	43.2	32.5	51.0	36.2	48.9
Medical services	41.1	28.8	38.5	27.4	45.8	35.6	43.9	28.1	38.7	26.4
Prescription and nonprescription drugs	17.9	17.4	18.7	18.8	14.8	15.4	16.9	14.0	19.8	19.3
Medical supplies	6.4	5.9	7.6	5.9	6.8	5.7	6.8	7.0	5.4	5.4

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 99-8 August 1999

Consumer Spending on Traveling for Pleasure

America is a Nation of travelers. In 1997, consumers made over 443 million pleasure trips, an increase of more than 7 percent since 1995, and nearly 23 percent more than in 1990.¹ According to results of the Consumer Expenditure Survey, nearly 41 percent of all consumer units² interviewed in 1997 reported some expenditure for non-business travel. Pleasure trips and vacations are a major expenditure for many consumers, and accounted for nearly 7 percent of total quarterly outlays for those who report such expenditures, or almost as much as the average consumer unit spent on food at home.

It is useful to understand how and when the travel dollar is allocated. For this report, consumer units were interviewed about their travel expenditures in January, April, July, and October of 1997 (the most recent year for which data are currently available). These months are selected due to the recall nature of the Interview component of the Consumer Expenditure Survey, from which these data are taken. Each respondent is asked to recall expenditures for the prior 3 months. In this case, families interviewed in January 1997 report expenditures for October, November, and December 1996. Those who are interviewed in February 1997 report expenditures for November and December 1996 and January 1997. Because of this overlap in months, it is not easy to distinguish in which season of the year the expenditures for travel occurred unless the sample is limited to those months selected.

The chart shows that there is a seasonal pattern to expenditures for travel. Not surprisingly, the percentage of consumer units reporting such expenditures peaks in the summer months (July, August, and September). This is a time of year when children are out of school,

and when there is less likelihood that inclement weather will cause travel delays. However, regardless of month interviewed, more than one third to nearly one half of all families report travel expenditures.

Travel expenditures. The table shows how the travel budget is allocated, including both average expenditures and budget shares for each season of the year. For comparability, only those who report at least one travel-related expenditure during their interview are included in the sample shown in the table.

Just as the frequency of travel increases during the summer months, so too does the amount spent on travel. At an average of \$776 during this period, expenditures are nearly 28 percent higher than in winter (\$607), the period when average travel expenditures are lowest. They exceed expenditures during the spring (\$692) by over 12 percent.

There is a great deal of variation in the allocation of the travel dollar among the various components of travel. For example, expenditures for food and alcohol vary greatly by season. Average expenditures on these two items on trips in summer exceed expenditures in winter by nearly 30 percent. Similarly, lodging expenditures are much higher in the summer—81 percent higher—than in the winter. This may reflect a seasonal shift in demand for lodging during the summer, in part due to increased travel at this time. Likewise, average enter-

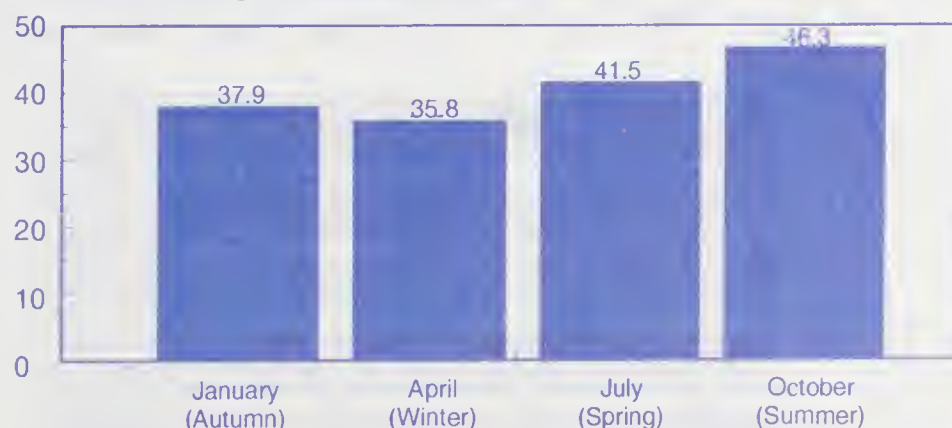
tainment expenditures are higher in summer than any other time of year. It may be that given the weather, more families attend outdoor sports in the summer than in other seasons. (This is supported by the fact that entertainment expenditures in spring are also much higher than those in autumn or winter.)

However, not all travel expenditures are consistent with this pattern. For example, expenditures for airfares are 23 percent lower in spring and summer than they are in autumn. Expenditures for gasoline and motor oil on trips rise during this period, so it may be that families are substituting driving for air travel.

Shares of travel expenditures. Food and alcohol purchases account for more than 1 in every 4 dollars spent on travel regardless of season. In fact, food alone accounts for more than 25 percent of the travel budget in the summer months. Although food accounts for nearly that amount in the winter and spring months, it accounts for only about \$1 in every \$4.50 spent in the autumn. Alcohol expenditures range only from 2.5 to 3.1 percent of total travel spending, regardless of season.

Likewise, lodging consumed a much larger share of the travel budget (23 percent) in the summer of 1997 than it did in winter of 1996 (16 percent). However, total transportation dropped precipitously as a share of total travel expenditures, accounting for nearly half of all travel expenditures in autumn of 1996, but just

Percent reporting travel expenditures, 1997



NOTE: Month refers to month of interview. Season refers to period in which expenditure occurred

¹ U.S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1998 (118th edition.) Washington, DC, 1998, table 451.

² A consumer unit is comprised of members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least two out of three major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses.

over one-third of travel expenditures in summer of 1997. This is due to large declines in the share for airfares. Even other local transportation falls from 3 percent to 2 percent of the travel dollar in this period. (Vehicle operations is somewhat volatile, though, dropping from 11.2 percent of total travel expenditures in autumn to 10.7 percent in winter, but rising to 12.5 percent by summer.)

Finally, despite the fact that expenditure levels for entertainment on trips are higher in the spring and summer months than in the autumn and winter months, the share for entertainment ranges only from about 10 to 11 percent of the total travel budget, regardless of the season examined.

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For further information on the data presented here, contact Geoffrey Paulin at (202) 606-6900. For general information about the CE Survey, send e-mail to Vanderheide_W@bls.gov.

Average quarterly expenditures for travelers, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1997

Item	Month of Interview:				Item	Month of Interview:			
	January (Autumn)	April (Winter)	July (Spring)	October (Summer)		January (Autumn)	April (Winter)	July (Spring)	October (Summer)
Total consumer units reporting travel expenditures	39,836,117	38,130,668	43,476,708	48,396,968					
Quarterly outlays	\$10,113	\$10,093	\$9,946	\$10,765	Share of travel budget				
Travel expenditures	679	607	692	776	Travel expenditures	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food	151	150	171	197	Food	22.2	24.7	24.7	25.4
Alcohol	21	18	17	21	Alcohol	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.7
Lodging	116	97	142	176	Lodging	17.1	16.0	20.5	22.7
Transportation	325	274	285	295	Transportation	47.9	45.1	41.2	38.0
Airfares	195	156	150	150	Airfares	28.7	25.7	21.7	19.3
Other fares ¹	31	37	45	29	Other fares ¹	4.6	6.1	6.5	3.7
Vehicle operations	76	65	77	97	Vehicle operations	11.2	10.7	11.1	12.5
Vehicle rental	19	18	17	28	Vehicle rental	2.8	3.0	2.5	3.6
Gas and oil	57	47	60	69	Gas and oil	8.4	7.7	8.7	8.9
Other transportation ²	23	16	13	19	Other transportation ²	3.4	2.6	1.9	2.4
Entertainment ³	66	68	77	87	Entertainment ³	9.7	11.2	11.1	11.2

¹ Includes intercity bus and train fares and ship fares.

² Includes local transportation, parking fees, tolls, etc.

³ Includes fees for participation sports and for admissions to sporting events and movies; and rentals of campers and other recreational vehicles not included in transportation.

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
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Summary 99-9 September 1999

Expenditures on Public Transportation

Public transportation expenditures consumed 6 percent of the average household's transportation budget in 1997, divided between intracity and intercity travel (22 percent and 78 percent of total public transportation expenditures, respectively). Intracity transportation modes include mass transit, taxi and limousine service, and school bus. Intercity transportation modes include air, bus, train, and ship. This report highlights public transportation expenditures by consumer units¹ in 1997, classified by income quintiles and by regions.²

Income quintile

The proportion of total expenditures allocated to transportation ranged from 16 to 21 percent for different income groups. The proportion of total transportation expenditures allocated to public transportation ranged from 5 to 8 percent. Consumers in the highest income quintiles spent the most on public transportation, \$911, which was more than twice the expenditure by consumers in the fourth income quintile, and almost six times the expenditure by those in the first quintile. (See table.)

Households in quintile 5 also allocated the highest share of transportation expenditures to

¹In this report, *consumers* is used interchangeably with *consumer units* and *household*. In the survey, a *consumer unit* includes (1) members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption or other legal arrangement; (2) a person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is responsible for at least two of the following three major types of expenses - food, housing, and other expenses; or (3) two or more persons living together who pool their income to make joint expenditure decisions.

²For the purpose of reporting expenditures by income groups, complete income reporters are ranked in ascending order, according to the level of total before-tax income. The ranking is then divided into five equal groups called *quintiles*, with quintile 1 consisting of consumers with the lowest 20 percent in terms of before-tax income, and quintile 5 consisting of consumers in the highest 20 percent. *Complete income reporters* are respondents who have provided values for major sources of income, such as wages and salaries, self-employment income, and Social Security income.

public transportation (8 percent). This seeming anomaly is largely due to the fact that intercity travel is more expensive than intracity travel, and consumer units in the fifth income quintile spent about five times as much on intercity travel as on intracity travel. Those in the lowest income quintile spent less than twice as much on intercity travel as on intracity travel (see chart).

For intracity travel, the allocation of public transportation expenditures was highest for mass transit across all income groups, with the lowest making the largest allocation, 25 percent, and the highest making the smallest allocation, 10 percent. For intercity travel, all quintiles allocated the highest proportion of public transportation expenditures to air travel, and this allocation was progressive across income quintiles: consumers in the lowest income quintile allocated the least, about 50 percent, those in the highest allocated the most, 70 percent. As a proportion of public transportation expenditures, the two lowest income groups spent two to three times more on intercity bus fares than the higher income quintiles, as might be expected.

Region.

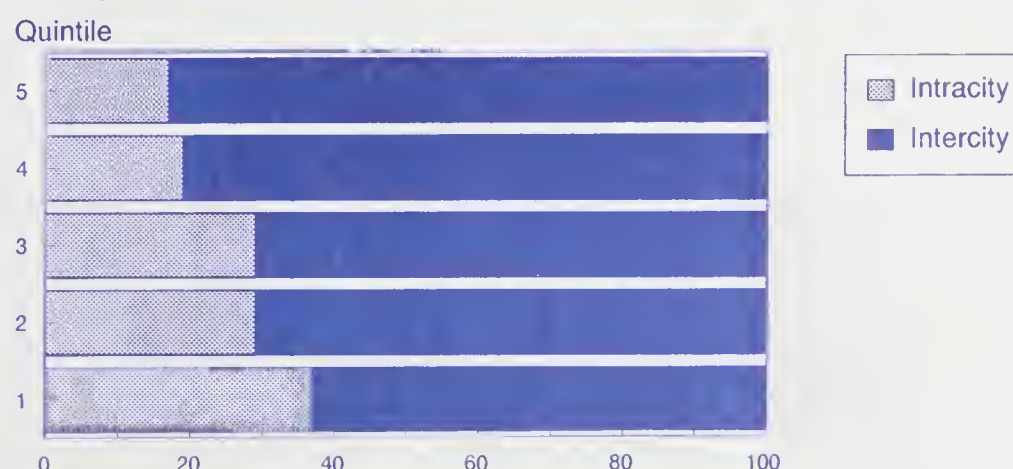
The share of total expenditures that households allocated to total transportation ranged from 17 percent in the Northeast to 21 percent in the South. However, households in the North-

east allocated the largest share of total transportation expenditures to public transportation, 10 percent, whereas those in the South allocated the smallest share, 4 percent. Households in the Northeast spent an average of \$587 on public transportation, which was more than twice the expenditures by consumers in the south.

In the Northeast, households also exhibited a difference from the other three regions in the use of public transportation for intracity versus intercity travel. The Northeast had the highest proportion of public transportation expenditures allocated to intracity travel, 37 percent, more than twice the other three regions. The greater use of public transportation in the Northeast relative to the other regions is consistent with the lower percentage of private vehicle ownership in the Northeast, 79 percent, relative to the other three regions (see table). It also likely reflects the more extensive public transportation network that exists in the more densely populated Northeast region.

For intracity travel, the allocation of public transportation expenditures was highest for mass transit across all regions, with the share in the Northeast, 29 percent, being more than 3 times those in the other 3 regions. Air travel accounted for the largest share of intercity travel spending for public transportation across all regions; the West allocated the most,

Allocation of public transportation expenditures between intracity and intercity travel by income quintile, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1997



71 percent, and the Northeast the least, 50 percent.

Additional information
For more information about the data presented here, contact Lucilla Tan in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Bureau of Labor Statistics at (202) 606-6900, or by e-mail at tan_l@bls.gov. To find Consumer Expenditure Survey data on the Internet, access <http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS Consumer Expenditure Survey homepage. Material in this publication is in the public domain, and with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.

Table 1: Average annual expenditures on public transportation by income quintile and region, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1997

Item	All consumer units	Total complete reporters	Quintile 1	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5	North-east	Midwest	South	West
Income before taxes	\$39,926	\$39,926	\$7,086	\$17,246	\$30,285	\$48,478	\$96,397	\$43,336	\$39,222	\$35,691	\$44,368
Average annual expenditures	\$33,072	\$34,139	\$15,245	\$22,054	\$29,500	\$40,432	\$63,393	\$33,971	\$31,885	\$30,751	\$37,373
Average annual expenditure on public transportation ..	\$393	\$390	\$156	\$202	\$280	\$400	\$911	\$587	\$345	\$243	\$511
At least 1 vehicle owned or leased (percent)	87	88	63	87	93	98	98	79	89	89	88
Share of average annual expenditures allocated to total transportation (percent)	19.4	19.3	15.7	19.4	20.7	21.4	18.3	17.0	19.8	20.9	18.8
Share of total transportation expenditures allocated to public transportation (percent)	6.1	5.9	6.5	4.7	4.6	4.6	7.9	10.2	5.5	3.8	7.3
Percent distribution of public transportation expenditures	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
[1] Intracity travel	21.9	21.7	37.0	28.8	28.6	19.3	16.6	36.6	14.9	17.5	14.9
Mass transit	14.2	14.0	25.4	19.5	20.5	11.7	9.9	28.8	8.0	8.1	7.9
Taxi and limousine	2.4	2.5	6.3	4.4	2.9	1.8	1.6	3.4	1.8	2.4	1.9
Private school bus2	.3	.3	.5	.1	.4	.2	.4	.2	.3	.1
Taxi and limousine fares on trips	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.8	2.5	1.9
Local transportation on trips	3.2	3.1	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.1	2.6	3.1	4.3	3.2
[2] Intercity travel	78.1	78.3	63.0	71.2	71.4	80.7	83.4	63.4	85.1	82.5	85.1
Airline	63.3	65.0	50.9	60.0	61.4	64.2	70.0	50.2	66.5	68.5	70.9
Intercity bus	2.7	2.9	5.6	6.3	2.7	2.6	2.0	2.8	2.6	2.8	2.4
Intercity train	5.4	5.5	5.8	4.2	5.6	5.8	5.5	4.7	6.2	6.0	5.0
Ship	6.7	4.9	.7	.8	1.8	8.1	6.0	5.7	9.8	5.1	6.8

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Occupational Stress

“I’m stressed out.” The reality may be that the worker saying this is, in fact, experiencing an occupational illness. Many employees undergo stress as a normal part of their jobs, but some experience it more severely than others, to the point that they need time away from work. The Bureau of Labor Statistics’ Survey of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses classifies occupational stress as “neurotic reaction to stress.” There were 3,418 such illness cases in 1997. The median absence from work for these cases was 23 days, more than four times the level of all nonfatal occupational injuries and illnesses. And more than two-fifths of the cases resulted in 31 or more lost workdays, compared to one-fifth for all injury and illness cases. (See chart.)

Case counts

The 1997 estimate of 3,418 cases of occupational stress is the lowest since 1992, when BLS first began collecting these data. The decline is consistent with the trend for all nonfatal occupational injuries and illnesses involving days away from work. Occupational stress cases declined by 15 percent over the 1992-97 period, whereas all injuries and illnesses declined by 21 percent.

Industry. Finance, insurance and real estate, with 12 percent of the cases, and services, with 35 percent, had higher proportions of occupational stress cases than they did of all occupational injury and illness cases involving days away from work, 2 and 23 percent, respectively. The proportion of occupational stress disorders was lower in all other industries than comparable proportions of all injuries and illnesses. Four industries accounted for the bulk of occupational stress cases: Services (35 percent), manufacturing (21 percent), retail trade (14 percent), and finance, insurance, and real estate (12 percent).

Occupation. White-collar occupations had a higher proportion of stress cases than both blue-collar and service occupations combined (see table). Managerial and professional occupations, with 16 percent of the cases, and tech-

nical, sales, and administrative support occupations with 48 percent, had higher proportions of occupational stress cases than they did of all occupational injury and illness cases involving days away from work, 5 and 15 percent, respectively. Three occupations accounted for almost 80 percent of all cases of occupational stress: The two white-collar occupations just mentioned and operators, fabricators, and laborers. Occupations most often leading to occupational stress disorders include bookkeepers, accounting, and auditing clerks—5 percent; supervisors and proprietors, sales occupations—4 percent; investigators and adjusters, excluding insurance—4 percent; cooks—4 percent; and production occupation supervisors—4 percent. (See table.)

Sex. For every case of occupational stress involving a male, 1.6 cases involved a female. The opposite was true for all occupational injuries and illnesses: For each case involving a female, two cases involved a male.

Incidence rates

Industry. The nonfatal occupational injury and illness incidence rate for occupational stress cases was less than 1 case per 10,000 full-time workers in each of the major industry divisions in 1997, the lowest since BLS began collect-

ing such data in 1992. The incidence rate for occupational stress in finance, insurance, and real estate (FIRE) in 1997, was the lowest in 6 years, and for the first time since 1992, did not significantly exceed the rates for all other industry divisions. In contrast, for all injuries and illnesses, the rate of 67.4 in FIRE was the lowest among the major industry divisions, and less than one-third of the total private industry rate.

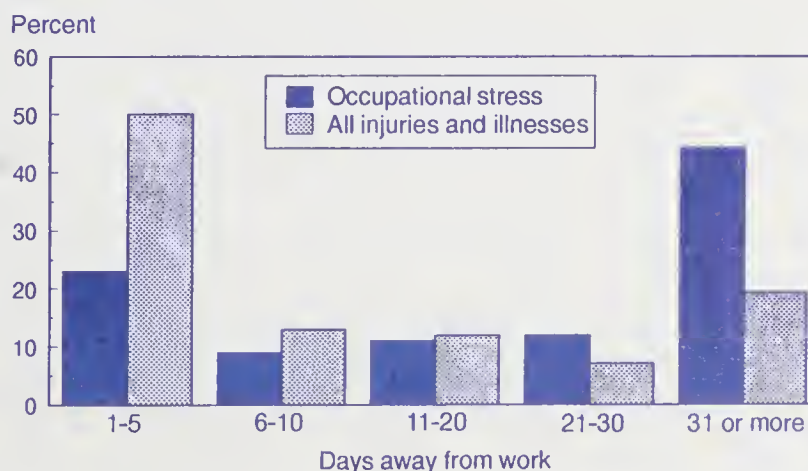
Relative risk by occupation. The risk of injury or illness faced by employees in individual occupational groups compared to the risk faced by all occupations combined is called relative risk. When constructing an index for such a risk faced by all occupations combined, the index is equal to 1. In 1997, the index for occupational stress ranged from 0.6 for managerial and professional occupations to 1.6 for technical, sales, and administrative support occupations.

The relative risk for occupational stress exceeded the relative risk for all injuries and illnesses for white-collar jobs. Among blue-collar and service jobs the reverse was true: relative risk for occupational stress was lower than the risk for all injuries and illnesses.

Additional information

For more information about the data presented here, contact Timothy Webster or Bruce

Percent of occupational stress and all nonfatal occupational injury and illness cases involving days away from work, 1997



Bergman in the Office of Safety, Health and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics at (202) 606-6179, or by e-mail at Webster_T@bls.gov or Bergman_B@bls.gov.

Occupational injury and illness data are also available at <http://stats.bls.gov/oshhome.htm>, the BLS Internet site. Material in this summary is in the public domain and may be reproduced without permission. Appropriate credit is requested. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 606-7828; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.

Percent distribution of all nonfatal occupational injuries and illnesses and neurotic reaction to stress cases involving days away from work, selected characteristics, 1997

Characteristic	All injuries and illnesses	Neurotic reaction to stress	Characteristic	All injuries and illnesses	Neurotic reaction to stress
Total cases ¹	1,833,400	3,418	Total cases ¹	1,833,400	3,418
Industry, total	100	100	Occupation, total—Continued	100	100
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing ¹	2	-	Sales representatives, mining manufacturing, wholesale	(³)	3
Mining ²	1	-	Insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators	(³)	3
Construction	10	-	General office clerks	1	3
Manufacturing	24	21	Service	17	11
Transportation and public utilities ²	12	9	Cooks	2	4
Wholesale trade	8	7	Guards and police, except public	1	3
Retail trade	17	14	Blue collar	62	24
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2	12	Farming, forestry, and fishing	3	-
Services	23	35	Precision production, craft, and repair	17	9
Occupation, total	100	100	Operators, fabricators, and laborers	42	15
White collar	20	64	Supervisors, production occupations	1	4
Managerial and professional	5	16	Assemblers	2	3
Technical, sales, and administrative support	15	48	Sex, total	100	100
Bookkeepers, accounting, and auditing clerks	(³)	5	Men	66	39
Supervisors and proprietors, sales occupations	2	4	Women	33	61
Investigators and adjusters, excluding insurance	(³)	4			

¹ Excludes farms with fewer than 11 employees.

² Data conforming to Occupational Safety and Health Administration definitions for mining operators in coal, metal, and nonmetal mining and for employees in railroad transportation are provided to BLS by the Mine Safety and Health Administration; and the Federal Railroad Administration, U.S. Department of Transportation. Independent mining contractors are excluded from the coal, metal, and mining industries.

³ Less than 1 percent.

NOTE: Dashes indicate data do not meet publication criteria.

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Consumer Spending During Retirement

According to projections by the Census Bureau, the U.S. population aged 65 years and older will more than double over the next three decades, totaling roughly 69 million in 2030. With this demographic phenomenon comes an increasing concern in both the public and private sectors for the welfare of the elderly. Whether the topic is Social Security sustainability or rising health care costs, the fundamental factor in any issue regarding the older population is retirement, because preparation for this event determines the lifestyle and standard of living during this stage of the life cycle. This report provides information on retirement and pre-retirement spending patterns, using data from the Consumer Expenditure Survey. Two comparisons are made: 1) spending by retirees in 1987 and 1997, and 2) pre-retirement and retirement spending in 1997.

A consumer unit¹ is classified in the retired group if the reference person is 65 years of age or older and retired, and there are no earners in the household. To show how spending patterns change with retirement, a pre-retired group is selected based on the following criteria: The age of the reference person is between 55 and 64, and he or she is earning labor income, which includes both wage and salary income and self-employment income. The data presented for both groups are taken from the interview portion of the Consumer Expenditure Survey for the periods 1987 and 1997. The Interview Survey collects data on major items of expense, household characteristics, and income. Each sample household is interviewed once per quarter for five consecutive quarters. These data capture up to 95 percent of all expenditures.

Spending by retired households, 1987 and 1997. As the table indicates, the allocation of total dollars spent by retired households in 1997 is very similar to that in 1987. For this study, each year from 1987 through 1997 was examined; but, because there is so little variation in the intervening years, only data for the first and last year are shown. Similarly, survey results show that the household characteristics of those in retirement have remained relatively stable over the past decade. Only the residential status has shifted significantly, with an increase of 4.5 percentage points in the proportion of retirees who own their homes. More specifically, the percentage of retired households who are homeowners without a mortgage has grown from 61.7 percent to 65.4 percent, while the percentage of renters has declined from 29.0 percent to 24.5 percent. (The share of homeowners with a mortgage showed little change—from 9.3 to 10.1 percent.)

¹A consumer unit is defined as members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least 2 out of 3 major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses. For the purpose of this analysis, *consumer unit* and *household* are used interchangeably.

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Table 1. Selected characteristics, income, and expenditure shares for retired consumer units: Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1987 and 1997

Selected characteristics			
Category	1987	1997	1997 less 1987
Age of reference person	75.6	76.1	0.5
Number of persons in CU	1.5	1.5	0
Number of vehicles	1.1	1.3	.2
Percent homeowner	71.0	75.5	4.5
With mortgage	9.3	10.1	.8
No mortgage	61.7	65.4	3.7
Percent renter	29.0	24.5	-4.5
Income and expenditures (Dollars)			
Category	1987	1997	1997 less 1987
Household income ¹	17,833	18,206	373
Total expenditures ²	17,751	19,676	1,925
Expenditure distribution (Percent)			
Category	1987	1997	1997 less 1987
Housing	33.8	33.0	-.8
Food	17.4	16.5	-.9
Transportation	14.7	15.1	.4
Health care	11.8	13.3	1.5
Insurance	5.2	7.4	2.2
All other	6.6	5.9	-.7
Entertainment	3.3	4.7	1.4
Apparel	3.7	2.9	-.8
Other expenditures ³	15.3	14.4	-.9

¹ In 1997 dollars
² Annual average in 1997 dollars
³ Includes alcohol, personal care, reading, education, tobacco, cash contributions and miscellaneous

Despite this change in housing tenure, the share of total expenditures devoted to housing has changed very little, accounting for the largest share (approximately one-third) of total spending in both 1987 and 1997. Health care as a share of total expenditures has changed the most among the major categories reported in the table, increasing by 1.5 percentage points over this period. Although this is a rather small change in itself, there has been a significant shift in the allocation of total health care dollars, with medical insurance accounting for 55.4 percent of health care expenditures in 1997, up from 43.8 percent in 1987.

Pre-retired vs. retired expenditure shares, 1997. Based on the aforementioned selection criteria for these two groups, there are obvious differences in terms of household characteristics. For example, the average age of the reference person in the pre-retired sample is 59 years, compared to 76 years for retirees. Also, by definition the retired group is made up of no-earner households, whereas the average number of

earners in a pre-retired household is 1.8. There are other noteworthy differences between the two groups that are not direct results of the selection process. For example, the average family size for a retired consumer unit is 1.5 persons versus 2.3 persons for the pre-retired and, on average, retirees own fewer vehicles (1.3 versus 2.3).

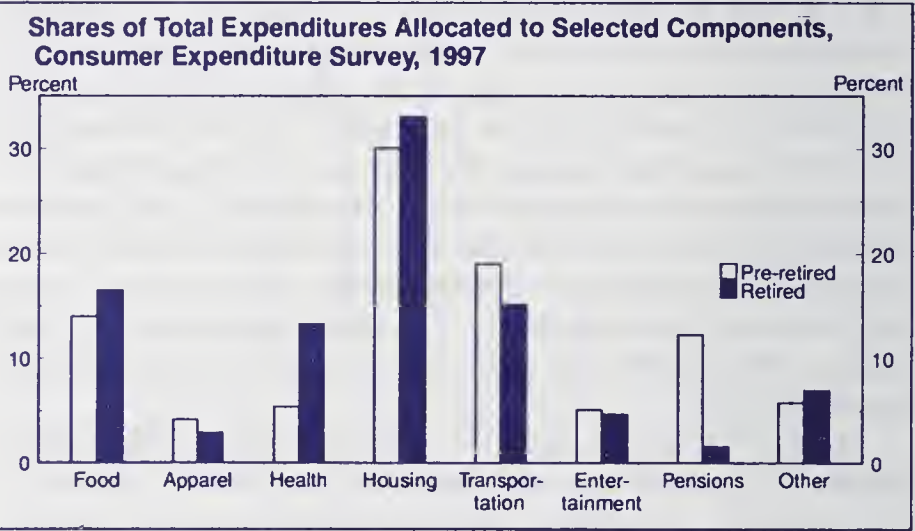
Residential status and income also differ. While a higher proportion of pre-retired households own their homes—80.7 percent, versus 75.5 percent of retirees—only 14.4 percent of retired homeowners have a mortgage, while 55.6 percent of pre-retired homeowners still report payments on their house. As one might expect, there is a substantial decline in household income after retirement.² Average income for a pre-retired consumer unit is more than two and a half times that for retirees—\$49,330 versus \$18,206.

As the bar graph illustrates, retired consumer units allocate their spending dollars differently than those households that are approaching retirement. Not surprisingly, the biggest difference is in the shares of total expenditures devoted to personal insurance and pensions (abbreviated as *pensions* in the graph). While this is a significant spending category for the pre-retired group, at 12.3 percent of total spending, the comparable share is only 1.6 percent for retirees. On the other hand, during retirement, health care commands a much larger percentage of total expenditures than the pre-retirement share, 13.3 percent versus 5.4 percent. Furthermore, this difference is accompanied by a shift in the allocation of total health care dollars among components, with health insurance accounting for 47.9 percent of health care spending before retirement and 55.4 percent afterward. Similarly, while the expenditure share for total food differs by only 2.5 percentage points upon retirement, the proportion of those food dollars spent for food at home varies

² Income measurements for this study are of pre-tax household income from complete income reporters only. A complete income reporter is a consumer unit that provides values for at least one of the major sources of its income, such as wages and salaries, self-employment income, and Social Security income. A complete reporter may not provide a full accounting of all income from all sources, however.

by almost 3 times that much, from 70.9 percent in pre-retired consumer units to 78.1 percent in retired households. Another major expenditure category for which the two groups' shares differ significantly is transportation. The pre-retired group spends 19.0 percent of their total expenditures for transportation, whereas retirees allocate 15.1 percent to this category. This difference can be at least partially linked to the fact that retirees are no longer commuting to work, as well as to the fact that the pre-retired consumer units, on average, own more vehicles than the retired consumer units. Housing, at 30.0 percent of total expenditures, is the largest expenditure share category for the pre-retired group. As noted previously, this is also true for retired households, who devote 33.0 percent of their total spending dollars to housing. The remaining categories of expenditure shares differ only slightly between the two groups, with retirees allocating less to apparel (2.9 percent versus 4.2 percent) and entertainment (4.7 percent versus 5.1 percent) than the pre-retired consumer units.

For more information about the data presented here, contact Abby Duly in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Bureau of Labor Statistics by e-mail at duly_a@bls.gov or by phone at (202) 691-5135.



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Are Managers and Professionals Really Working More?

More than 60 percent of the net employment growth during the 1990s occurred among managers and professionals, occupations in which long workweeks are quite typical. Coincident with this rise in employment has been the perception that managers and professionals are working longer workweeks than in the past. However, weekly hours data for such occupations show that the average workweek has been about 42 hours during the entire decade and, in fact, has shown little variation since 1982.¹

A substantial share of managers and professionals do put in extraordinarily long workweeks. In 1999, nearly 3 in 10 worked 49 hours or more per week, compared with about 2 in 10 for all nonfarm occupations. Moreover, of the men employed as managers and professionals, about 4 in 10 worked at least 49 hours per week, twice the share among women. As shown in the accompanying chart, these proportions rose steadily during the 1980s, but showed no further increase in the 1990s. Because data from January 1994 forward are not directly comparable to those for earlier years due to a redesign of the CPS, one is cautioned to view the periods from 1989 to 1993 and from 1994 to 1999 separately. Even so, there has been very little change in any of these series since 1989. Similar trends occurred for the proportion of managers and professionals working 60 hours or more per week.

Indeed, the number of managers and professionals working long workweeks has increased, but so too has the number working fewer than 49 hours per week. Since 1994, the number of persons at work in these occupations has risen by about 6.5 million, to 38.6 million. The number working 49 hours or more has increased by nearly 1.8 million, to 10.8 million. Of the net employment increase among managers and professionals, however, the share

of those working 49 hours or more is still about 28 percent.

As for managers and professionals overall, there was relatively little change in average weekly hours for managers and professionals separately during the 1990s. (See table.) Among both men and women, the average workweek for managers and professionals alike remained about unchanged over the past 10 years, with managers working more hours per week than professionals. Women make up a growing share of all managers and professionals, and they tend to have shorter workweeks than do men. In the short-run, however, these factors have little effect on overall average weekly hours of managers and professionals. If women's shares of these occupations had remained at the 1994 level, average weekly hours for the group overall still would have changed little, edging up by only

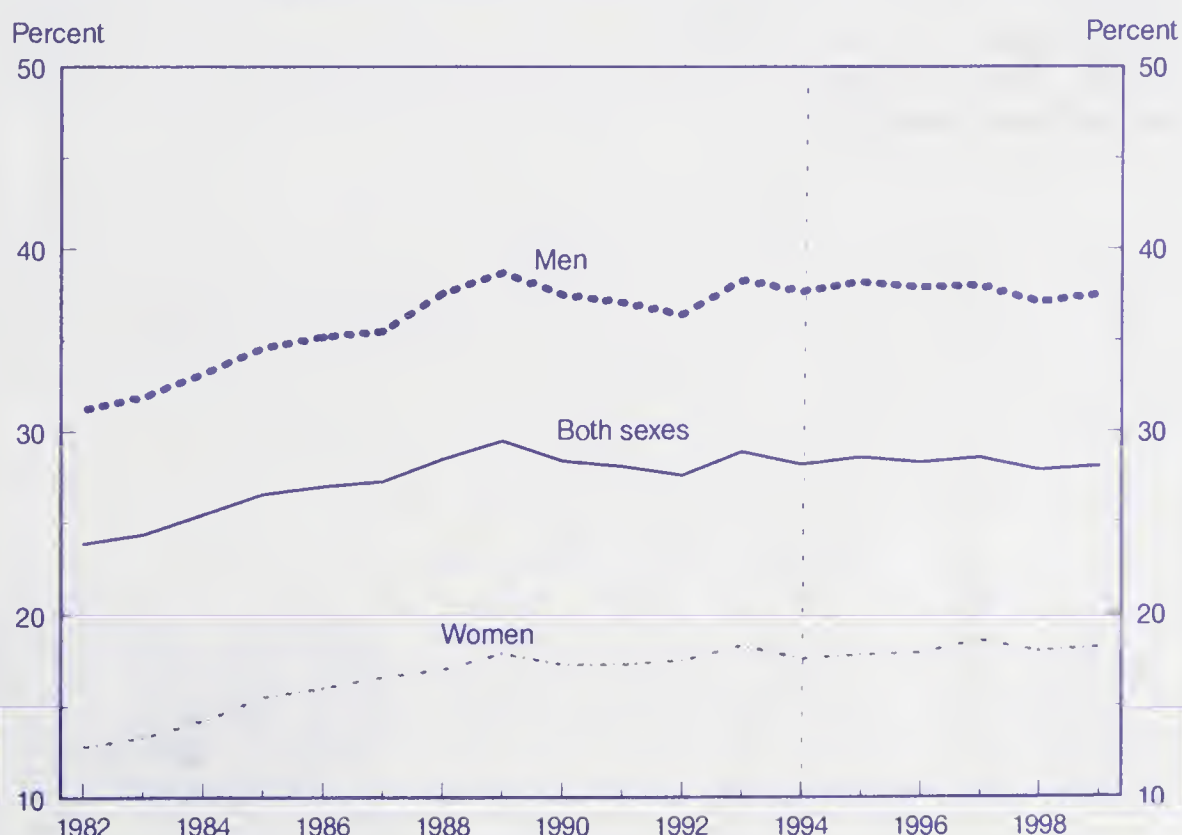
0.2 hour to 42.1 hours by 1999, compared with the actual change of 0.1 hour.

The hours series presented here are for all managerial and professional workers, both full and part-time, but the hours trends for those who usually work full time show very little change, as well.

Stable weekly work hours are not necessarily incompatible with the *perception* of busier schedules among managers and professionals. The perception could reflect changes in time spent on other activities (commuting, for example), more intense pressure during work hours, the increased workload of one's spouse, or other factors.

For additional information on hours at work and a technical description of the Current Population Survey from which the data used in this report were derived, contact Randy E. Ilg, Office of Employment and Unemployment-

The share of managers and professionals working 49 hours or more per week



NOTE: Data for 1994 and later years are not directly comparable with data for 1993 and earlier years, because of the introduction of a major redesign of the CPS questionnaire and collection methodology.

¹ The source of these data is the Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly sample survey of about 50,000 households. (The current occupational classification system used in the CPS has been in effect since 1982.)

Average weekly hours at work for executive, administrative, and managerial (managers) and professional specialty (professionals) occupations by sex, 1982-99

Year	Both sexes			Men			Women		
	Total	Managers	Profes- sionals	Total	Managers	Profes- sionals	Total	Managers	Profes- sionals
1982	41.2	43.6	39.0	44.0	45.3	42.6	36.8	40.0	34.9
1983	41.4	43.6	39.5	44.1	45.2	42.9	37.3	40.1	35.7
1984	41.8	44.0	39.9	44.6	45.7	43.3	37.8	40.5	36.0
1985	42.0	44.2	40.0	44.8	46.0	43.4	38.1	40.8	36.2
1986	42.2	44.2	40.2	44.9	46.1	43.6	38.4	40.9	36.5
1987	41.9	44.0	39.9	44.7	45.9	43.3	38.3	40.8	36.4
1988	42.3	44.4	40.4	45.3	46.5	43.8	38.6	41.1	36.7
1989	42.6	44.6	40.6	45.5	46.6	44.2	38.9	41.4	36.9
1990	42.3	44.2	40.3	45.2	46.3	43.9	38.6	41.1	36.7
1991	42.2	44.1	40.2	45.0	46.2	43.7	38.7	41.1	36.8
1992	41.7	43.7	39.8	44.5	45.9	43.0	38.4	40.7	36.6
1993	42.2	44.3	40.2	45.1	46.6	43.5	38.8	41.1	37.1
1994	41.9	44.0	40.0	45.1	46.5	43.5	38.5	40.7	36.7
1995	42.0	44.0	40.1	45.2	46.4	43.7	38.5	40.7	36.8
1996	41.9	43.9	40.0	45.1	46.4	43.5	38.5	40.6	36.8
1997	42.1	44.0	40.2	45.2	46.5	43.6	38.8	40.8	37.1
1998	41.8	43.6	39.9	44.8	46.2	43.2	38.4	40.4	36.8
1999	42.0	43.9	40.2	45.1	46.4	43.5	38.8	40.7	37.3

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Summary 00-12 May 2000

Are Managers and Professionals Really Working More?

More than 60 percent of the net employment growth during the 1990s occurred among managers and professionals, occupations in which long workweeks are quite typical. Coincident with this rise in employment has been the perception that managers and professionals are working longer workweeks than in the past. However, weekly hours data for such occupations show that the average workweek has been about 42 hours during the entire decade and, in fact, has shown little variation since 1982.¹

A substantial share of managers and professionals do put in extraordinarily long workweeks. In 1999, nearly 3 in 10 worked 49 hours or more per week, compared with about 2 in 10 for all nonfarm occupations. Moreover, of the men employed as managers and professionals, about 4 in 10 worked at least 49 hours per week, twice the share among women. As shown in the accompanying chart, these proportions rose steadily during the 1980s, but showed no further increase in the 1990s. Because data from January 1994 forward are not directly comparable to those for earlier years due to a redesign of the CPS, one is cautioned to view the periods from 1989 to 1993 and from 1994 to 1999 separately. Even so, there has been very little change in any of these series since 1989. Similar trends occurred for the proportion of managers and professionals working 60 hours or more per week.

Indeed, the number of managers and professionals working long workweeks has increased, but so too has the number working fewer than 49 hours per week. Since 1994, the number of persons at work in these occupations has risen by about 6.5 million, to 38.6 million. The number working 49 hours or more has increased by nearly 1.8 million, to 10.8 million. Of the net employment increase among managers and professionals, however, the share

of those working 49 hours or more is still about 28 percent.

As for managers and professionals overall, there was relatively little change in average weekly hours for managers and professionals separately during the 1990s. (See table.) Among both men and women, the average workweek for managers and professionals alike remained about unchanged over the past 10 years, with managers working more hours per week than professionals. Women make up a growing share of all managers and professionals, and they tend to have shorter workweeks than do men. In the short-run, however, these factors have little effect on overall average weekly hours of managers and professionals. If women's shares of these occupations had remained at the 1994 level, average weekly hours for the group overall still would have changed little, edging up by only

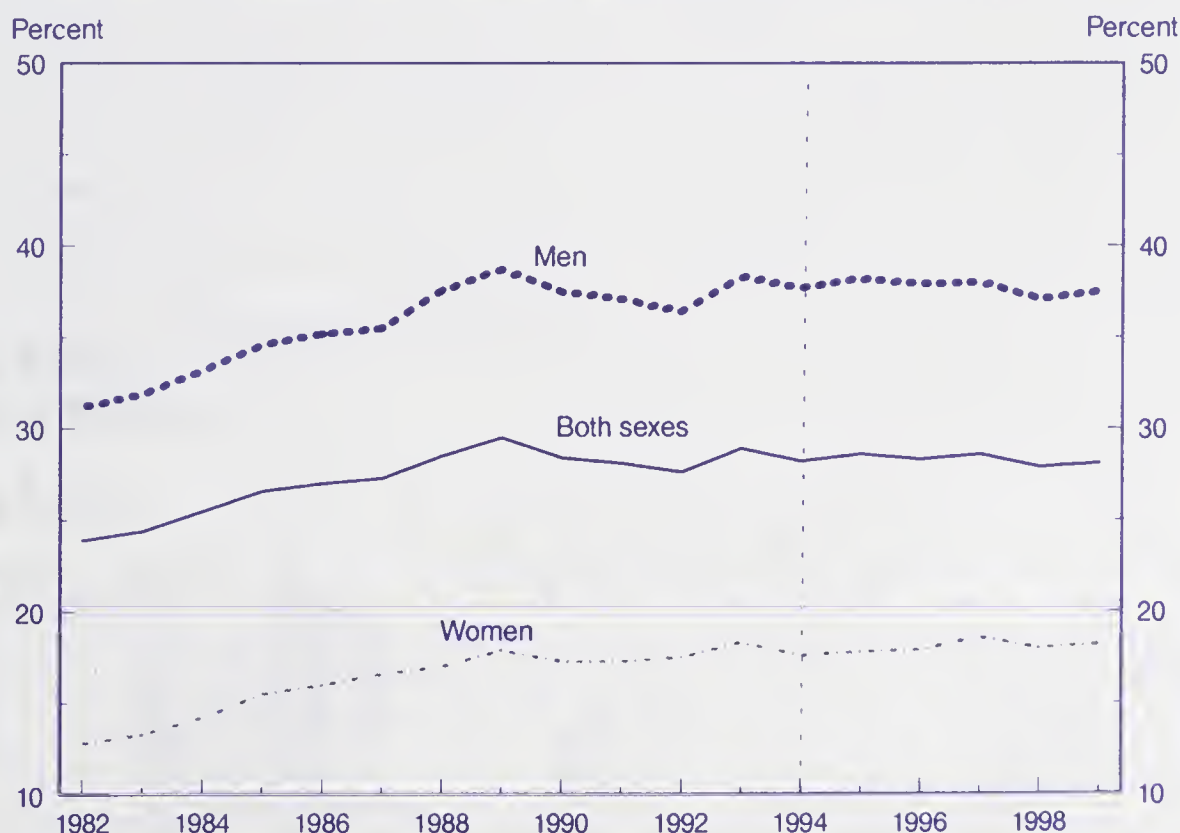
0.2 hour to 42.1 hours by 1999, compared with the actual change of 0.1 hour.

The hours series presented here are for all managerial and professional workers, both full and part-time, but the hours trends for those who usually work full time show very little change, as well.

Stable weekly work hours are not necessarily incompatible with the *perception* of busier schedules among managers and professionals. The perception could reflect changes in time spent on other activities (commuting, for example), more intense pressure during work hours, the increased workload of one's spouse, or other factors.

For additional information on hours at work and a technical description of the Current Population Survey from which the data used in this report were derived, contact Randy E. Ilg, Office of Employment and Unemploy-

The share of managers and professionals working 49 hours or more per week



NOTE: Data for 1994 and later years are not directly comparable with data for 1993 and earlier years, because of the introduction of a major redesign of the CPS questionnaire and collection methodology.

¹ The source of these data is the Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly sample survey of about 50,000 households. (The current occupational classification system used in the CPS has been in effect since 1982.)

Average weekly hours at work for executive, administrative, and managerial (managers) and professional specialty (professionals) occupations by sex, 1982–99

Year	Both sexes			Men			Women		
	Total	Managers	Profes- sionals	Total	Managers	Profes- sionals	Total	Managers	Profes- sionals
1982	41.2	43.6	39.0	44.0	45.3	42.6	36.8	40.0	34.9
1983	41.4	43.6	39.5	44.1	45.2	42.9	37.3	40.1	35.7
1984	41.8	44.0	39.9	44.6	45.7	43.3	37.8	40.5	36.0
1985	42.0	44.2	40.0	44.8	46.0	43.4	38.1	40.8	36.2
1986	42.2	44.2	40.2	44.9	46.1	43.6	38.4	40.9	36.5
1987	41.9	44.0	39.9	44.7	45.9	43.3	38.3	40.8	36.4
1988	42.3	44.4	40.4	45.3	46.5	43.8	38.6	41.1	36.7
1989	42.6	44.6	40.6	45.5	46.6	44.2	38.9	41.4	36.9
1990	42.3	44.2	40.3	45.2	46.3	43.9	38.6	41.1	36.7
1991	42.2	44.1	40.2	45.0	46.2	43.7	38.7	41.1	36.8
1992	41.7	43.7	39.8	44.5	45.9	43.0	38.4	40.7	36.6
1993	42.2	44.3	40.2	45.1	46.6	43.5	38.8	41.1	37.1
1994	41.9	44.0	40.0	45.1	46.5	43.5	38.5	40.7	36.7
1995	42.0	44.0	40.1	45.2	46.4	43.7	38.5	40.7	36.8
1996	41.9	43.9	40.0	45.1	46.4	43.5	38.5	40.6	36.8
1997	42.1	44.0	40.2	45.2	46.5	43.6	38.8	40.8	37.1
1998	41.8	43.6	39.9	44.8	46.2	43.2	38.4	40.4	36.8
1999	42.0	43.9	40.2	45.1	46.4	43.5	38.8	40.7	37.3

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A comparison of the characteristics and spending patterns of Food Stamp recipients and nonrecipients

The Food Stamp Program is intended to assist eligible low income households to purchase food so that they can maintain a nutritious diet. Food Stamp benefits are distributed in the form of paper coupons or Electronic Benefit Cards. Food Stamp benefits can be used only to buy authorized food items at stores designated by the U.S. Department of Agriculture. This report summarizes the characteristics and expenditures of consumer units¹ (CUs) classified according to whether Food Stamps are received, and whether the CU includes minors (members under 18 years of age).

In 1998, CUs receiving Food Stamps made up 5 percent of all consumer units, and 67 percent of those included minors.² In contrast, 34 percent of CUs that did not receive Food Stamps included minors. The average value of Food Stamps received by CUs with minors, \$2,255, is 15 percent of their income before taxes, 13 percent of average total expenditures, and 55 percent of food expenditures. (See table on reverse side.) In comparison, the average value of Food Stamps received by CUs without minors, \$639, is 7 percent of their income before taxes, 6 percent of average total expenditures,

and 30 percent of food expenditure. Food Stamp CUs with minors received an average of \$4,806 in public assistance and Supplemental Security Income, with the value of Food Stamps comprising 47 percent of that amount. Food Stamp CUs without minors received an average of \$2,290 in public assistance and Supplemental Security Income, with the value of Food Stamps comprising 28 percent. Non-Food Stamp CUs received an average of \$137 in public assistance and Supplemental Security Income.

Characteristics

Demographics. Food Stamp CUs with minors averaged 4.1 persons in the household, with 2.4 persons under age 18. Non-Food Stamp CUs with minors averaged 4.0 persons in the household, with 1.8 persons under age 18. Among CUs with minors, 82 percent of Food Stamp CUs have a female reference person, compared with 38 percent for non-Food Stamp CUs. About 41 percent of the reference persons of Food Stamp CUs are black and about 19 percent are Hispanic; for non-Food Stamp CUs, 14 percent are black and 12 percent are Hispanic. Among the four groups, non-Food Stamp CUs with minors have the highest aver-

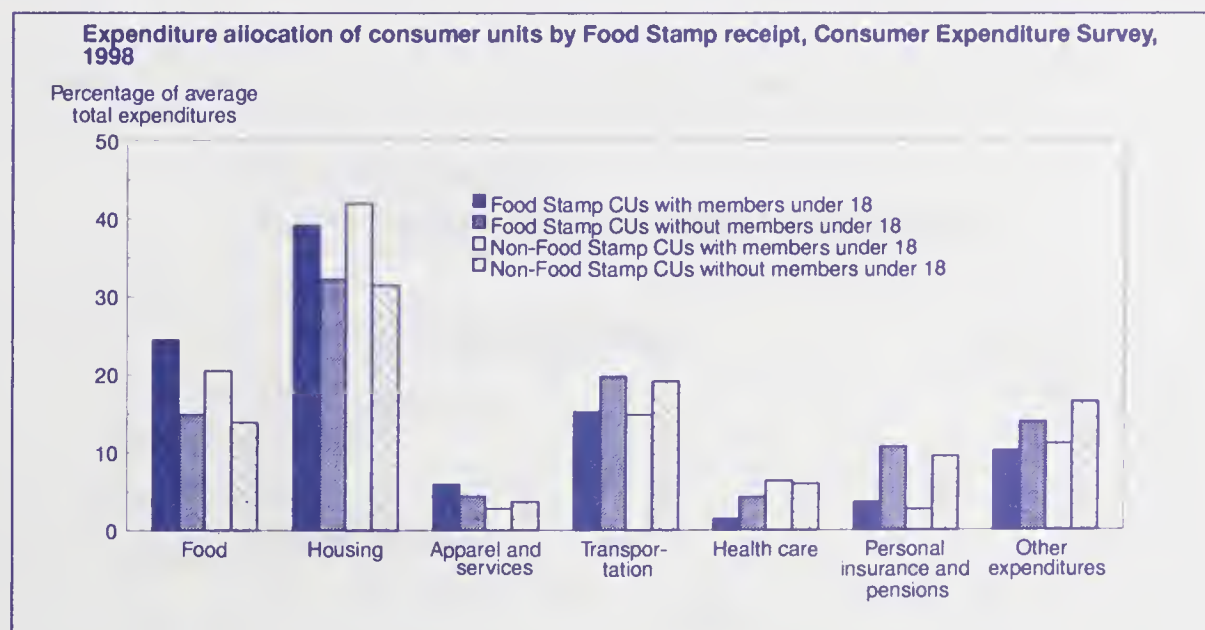
age number of earners per household (two persons), twice the number of earners as in Food Stamp CUs with minors.

Composition. The relationships between the reference person and other members of a CU differ depending on whether minors are present in the CU, or if the CU receives Food Stamps. "Husband and wife with own or adopted children" households comprise 23 percent of Food Stamp CUs with minors, compared with 68 percent of non-Food Stamp CUs with minors. Single-parent households constitute about 45 percent of Food Stamp CUs with minors, compared with 14 percent of non-Food Stamp CUs with minors. Of CUs in which minors are present, 15 percent of those receiving Food Stamps have a grandparent, sibling, or other relative as the reference person, compared with 5 percent for non-Food Stamp CUs. Food Stamp CUs have a higher proportion of singles, 74 percent, than do non-Food Stamp CUs, 44 percent.

Participation in free food programs. The Consumer Expenditure Survey also asks respondents if they receive free food from private and public welfare agencies. Participation rates in such programs are as follows: 14 percent of

¹ A consumer unit includes (1) members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption or other legal arrangement; (2) a person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is responsible for at least two of the following three major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses; or (3) two or more persons living together who pool their income to make joint expenditure decisions. In this report, the terms *CU* and *household* are used interchangeably. A *reference person* is the first member mentioned by the respondent when asked "to start with the name of the person or one of the persons who owns or rents the home." It is with respect to this person that the relationship of the other CU members is determined.

² Due to the 3-month reference period of the quarterly Interview component of the Consumer Expenditure Survey, the data for this report include data for October 1997 through November 1998; this effectively constitutes 12 months of data due to the rotating sample design of the survey.



food stamp CUs without minors, 10 percent of Food Stamp CUs with minors, and about 1 percent of non-Food Stamp CUs.

Expenditures

Average total expenditures of \$42,617 by non-Food Stamp CUs with minors are about 2.5 times greater than those of Food Stamp CUs with minors; average total expenditures of \$30,953 by non-Food Stamp CUs without minors are about 2.9 times greater than those of Food Stamp CUs without minors. Housing, food, and transportation comprised 79 percent of average total expenditures for Food Stamp

CUs with minors, 67 percent for non-Food Stamp CUs with minors, 77 percent for Food Stamp CUs without minors, and 64 percent for non-Food Stamp CUs without minors. (See chart on reverse side.) Both Food Stamp CUs and non-Food Stamp CUs allocated the largest share of total expenditures to housing—an average of 36 percent for Food Stamp CUs. The second largest expenditure category for Food Stamp CUs is food—an average of 20 percent. The second largest expenditure category for non-Food Stamp CUs is transportation — an average of 17 percent, about the same as for Food Stamp CUs.

For further information on the data presented here, contact Lucilla Tan at (202)691-6900. For general information about the data source, the Consumer Expenditure Survey, send email to cexinfo@bls.gov. To find Consumer Expenditure Survey data on the Internet, access <http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS homepage. Material in this publication is in the public domain, and with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 691-5200; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.

Expenditures and characteristics of consumer units (CUs), by Food Stamp status and by presence of members under age 18, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1998

Item	All CUs	Food Stamp CUs		Non-Food Stamp CUs		Item	All CUs	Food Stamp CUs		Non-Food Stamp CUs	
		With mem- bers under 18	With- out mem- bers under 18	With mem- bers under 18	With- out mem- bers under 18			With mem- bers under 18	With- out mem- bers under 18	With mem- bers under 18	With- out mem- bers under 18
Number of consumer units (in 000s)	106,959	3,861	1,946	34,679	66,473	Consumer unit characteristics					
Income before taxes	\$41,244	\$15,172	\$9,177	\$52,767	\$37,731	Average number in consumer unit:					
Public assistance, Supplemental Security Income	\$332	\$4,807	\$2,290	\$150	\$123	Persons	2.5	4.1	1.3	4.0	1.7
Food Stamps	\$89	\$2,255	\$639	\$0	\$0	Children under 187	2.4	.0	1.8	.0
Income after taxes	\$37,970	\$15,135	\$9,100	\$48,860	\$34,507	Percent distribution:					
Average total expenditures	\$33,856	\$16,910	\$10,552	\$42,617	\$30,953	Husband and wife with own/adopted children	27.3	23.1	1.4	67.9	7.1
Percent distribution:						Husband and wife with sibling, grandchildren	3.8	5.8	.6	8.0	1.6
Food	14.5	24.5	14.9	20.5	13.9	Husband and wife only	21.6	.0	9.9	.0	34.4
Housing	31.8	39.0	32.1	41.8	31.3	Single parent	6.1	45.1	.0	13.8	.0
Transportation	19.3	15.2	19.7	14.8	19.1	Single	28.6	.0	74.3	.0	43.9
Other expenditures	34.4	21.3	33.3	23.0	35.7	Reference person is a relative	3.5	14.9	2.6	4.8	2.2
						Other	9.1	11.1	11.2	5.6	10.7

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Spending Patterns By Age

As consumers age, both their level of spending and the way they allocate their spending changes. So called "life events" such as getting a first job, marriage, having children, and retirement can all have profound effects on spending patterns. This report provides a brief examination of how expenditures vary with age.

Twenty-six percent of the Nation's consumer units¹ (CU's) have a reference person² under the age of 35, and these families account for less than 23 percent of total annual consumer spending. On the opposite end of the age spectrum, households headed by someone aged 65 and older account for more than 20 percent of total households but less than 15 percent of total spending. Households headed by someone 35 to 64 years old account for the largest share of the population—53 percent—and an even larger share of overall spending—63 percent.

The sections that follow examine expenditure patterns for these three age groups, as reported in 1998 by consumer units participating in the Consumer Expenditure Survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Under 35

On average, the under-35 group spent \$30,291

¹ A consumer unit is composed of members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least 2 out of 3 major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses. The terms "consumer unit" and "household" are used interchangeably in this summary.

² The reference person is the first member mentioned by the respondent when asked to "Start with the name of the person or one of the persons who owns or rents the home." It is with respect to this person that the relationship of other consumer unit members is determined.

³ Income values are derived from "complete reporters" only. In general, a complete reporter is a respondent who provided values for at least one of the major sources of income, such as wages and salaries, self-employment income, and Social Security income. (A complete income reporter may or may not provide a full accounting of all income from all sources).

per consumer unit—about \$12,000 per year less than the 35-to-64 age group, but approximately \$5,500 per year more than the 65-and-older group. (See table on reverse side.) In addition, this group allocated their expenditures very differently than did the other two groups, as indicated by the share of total spending devoted to the various expenditure components. The under-35 group allocated larger shares of their average annual expenditures to food away from home, alcoholic beverages, housing, shelter, rented dwellings, apparel and services, transportation, and education. (See chart.)

Even though all three groups' spending share for food was approximately 14 percent, the youngest group spent a larger share of their food expenditure on food away from home (46 percent) compared with the 35-to-64 age group (43 percent) and the over-65 households (35 percent).

The shares of total spending on housing were also about equal for the three groups (between 32 and 34 percent) but differed significantly within the housing category. The under-35 households allocated 61 percent of their housing expenses to shelter, compared with 57 percent and 51 percent, respectively, for the 35- to 64-year-old and 65-and-older groups. Within the shelter category, 54 percent of the under-35 group's shelter expenses were allocated for rented dwelling, as compared to 21

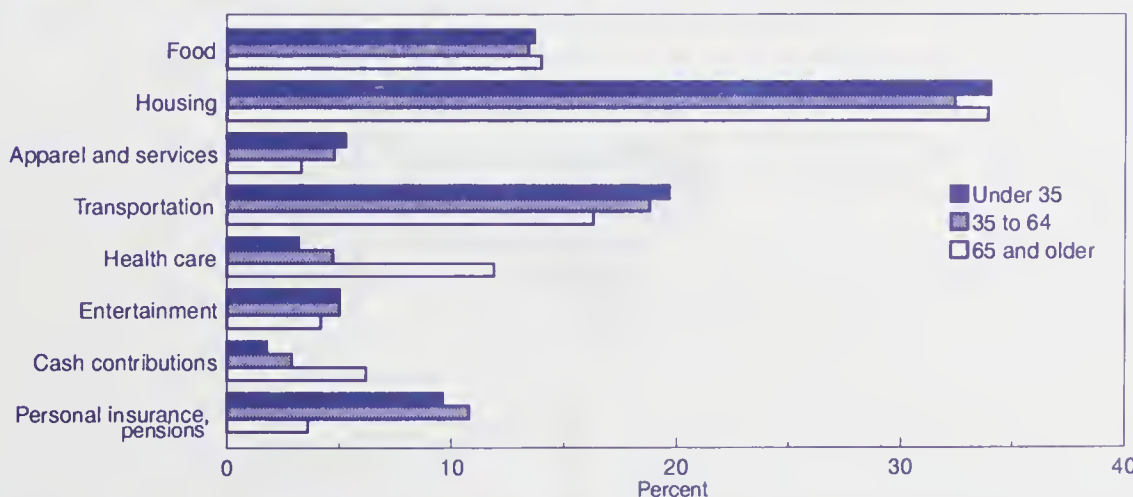
percent for the 35- to 64-year-old group and 26 percent for the 65-and-older group.

The under-35 older group are also least apt to be homeowners. Sixty-seven percent of this group are renters, compared with 26 percent of the 35-to-64 group and 20 percent of the 65-and-older group. The under-35 group allocated 5 percent to apparel and services, the highest of all three groups. The same is true for transportation, to which the under-35 group allocated a 20-percent share (compared with 19 percent for the 35- to 64-year-old group and 16 percent for the 65-and-older group). Forty-seven percent of these transportation expenditures were for vehicle purchases, again placing the youngest group at the top. The 2.3-percent share that this group allocated to education was the highest, but the 35-to-64 group was not far behind with a 1.7-percent share

Aged 35 to 64

The 35- to 64-year-old group had, on average, the highest level of total expenditures (\$42,236) and spent more than the other two household groups in all major expenditure categories except for alcoholic beverages, health care, and cash contributions. The under-35 group spent slightly more for alcoholic beverages, while the 65-and-older household expenditures for health care and cash contributions were greater.

Expenditure shares for selected components: consumer units with reference person under age 35, aged 35 to 64, and aged 65 and older



The 35- to 64-year-old group also had the highest income before taxes (\$52,142).³ This is \$17,655 (51 percent) more than that of the under-35 group and \$28,131 (117 percent) more than that of the 65-and-older group. However, the 35-to-64 age group had the highest expenditure “share” in only one major category: personal insurance and pensions. They earmarked slightly less than 11 percent of their expenditures for personal insurance and pensions, compared with 10 percent for the under-35 group and 4 percent for the 65-and-older group. It appears that the 35- to 64-year-old group’s spending pattern is more evenly spread out among the expenditure categories than are those of the other two groups.

Aged 65 and older

With average expenditures of \$24,721, this group spent less than the other two groups:

\$5,570 (18 percent) less than the under-35 age group, and \$17,515 (41 percent) less than the 35- to 64-year-old group. They also had the lowest income before taxes of all three groups. The 65-and-older group did have the highest level of expenditures in two major components, health care and cash contributions. They spent \$2,936 on health care (a 12-percent share), almost \$1,000 more than the 35- to 64-year old age group and \$1,900 more than the under-35 age group. The 65-and-older group spent \$1,529 and allocated over 6 percent of their expenditures to cash contributions to persons outside of the household, charities, churches, and other organizations. In addition to health care and cash contributions, the 65-and-older households also earmarked larger shares for food; food at home; utilities, fuels, and public services; public transportation; personal care products; and reading. Twenty-six percent of

this group’s housing expenses were allocated for utilities, fuels, and public services, the highest share among the three groups.

Additional information

For more information about the data presented here, contact Mark Vendemia in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Bureau of Labor Statistics at (202) 691-5134, or by email at Vendemia_m@bls.gov. To find Consumer Expenditure Survey data on the Internet, access <http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS Consumer Expenditure Survey homepage. Material in this publication is in the public domain, and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 691-5200; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.

Average annual expenditures and characteristics: consumer units by age of the reference person, Consumer Expenditure Survey,1998

Items	Under 35	35 to 64	65 and older	Items	Under 35	35 to 64	65 and older
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	28,224	57,128	21,830	Housekeeping supplies	314	595	393
Average number of persons in consumer unit ..	2.5	2.8	1.7	Household furnishings, equipment	1,315	1,936	1,089
Income before taxes	\$34,487	\$52,142	\$24,011	Apparel and services	1,592	2,039	820
Homeowner	33	74	80	Transportation	5,974	7,923	4,025
Renter	67	26	20	Vehicle purchases	2,796	3,571	1,593
Total expenditures	\$30,291	\$42,236	\$24,721	Gasoline and motor oil	910	1,212	645
Food	4,138	5,648	3,456	Other vehicle expenses	1,938	2,652	1,382
Food at home	2,246	3,232	2,264	Public transportation	330	487	405
Food away from Home	1,892	2,416	1,192	Health care	969	1,968	2,936
Alcoholic beverages	354	331	194	Entertainment	1,528	2,120	1,044
Housing	10,300	13,677	8,388	Personal care products and services ...	339	458	330
Shelter	6,227	7,825	4,271	Reading	114	183	163
Owned dwelling	2,611	5,598	2,817	Education	686	709	102
Rented dwelling	3,349	1,638	1,092	Tobacco products	233	340	151
Utilities, fuels, and public services	1,906	2,741	2,171	Miscellaneous	634	1,034	694
Household operations	538	581	464	Cash contributions	536	1,232	1,529
				Personal insurance and pensions	2,895	4,573	888

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Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 00-17 October 2000

Unemployed Job Leavers: A Meaningful Gauge of Confidence in the Job Market?

The expansion that began in March 1991 is now in its 10th year. Over this period, the unemployment rate has fallen to a 30-year low, and employment growth has been robust. As labor market conditions have tightened, there has been increased interest in the number of unemployed persons who have voluntarily left their jobs. Some analysts consider this series a gauge of workers' confidence about the job market, with an increase in the number of unemployed job leavers, or in their share of total unemployment, indicating rising confidence. The rationale is that workers would not voluntarily leave a job and enter into a job search unless they perceived that prospects for a successful search were quite good. The appropriateness of these measures, either on a month-to-month or longer-term basis, as a gauge of workers' confidence in the job market is questionable, however.

This report examines several issues associated with data on unemployed job leavers collected each month in the Current Population Survey (CPS).¹ First and foremost, *unemployed* job leavers may not be a good proxy for *total* job leavers, the vast majority of whom may never pass through the interim stage of unemployment. It is likely that most job leavers wait until they have found another job before they leave their old one, or that they leave the labor force altogether. Even among those job leavers who *are* classified in the CPS as unemployed, some may, indeed, have quit their jobs

because they were confident about employment opportunities. Others, however, may have quit because they had short-term personal reasons—family obligations or transportation problems, for example. Still others may have quit because they became dissatisfied with their job. Many of these situations have little to do with their assessment of employment opportunities.

Even more problematic is the use of the trend in *job leavers' share of total unemployment* as a gauge of workers' confidence. That measure is less appropriate than the job leavers level, because it can be less dependent on a change in the number of unemployed job leavers themselves than on a change in the number of persons who are unemployed for other reasons. Job losers, in particular, make up the largest share of the unemployed. In 1999, unemployed job leavers made up only 13.3 percent of the total unemployed, while the number unemployed for the other reasons (which also includes new labor force entrants and reentrants) comprised 86.7 percent. (See chart 1.) Any change in the job leavers' share of the unemployed can reflect, to a large degree, the declines or increases in the other categories of unemployment. Hence, a change in the share of the unemployed made up of job leavers would not appear to be a particularly revealing measure of changes in the willingness of per-

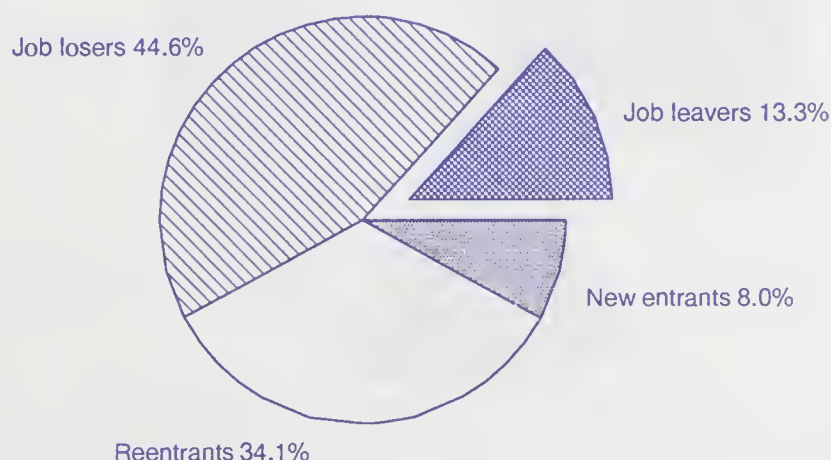
sons to quit their jobs.

Perhaps a more useful gauge for assessing the trend in job leavers (though not as a job-market confidence measure) is as a share of the labor force. The unemployed job leavers measure, when expressed in this manner, exhibits a pattern more cyclical than countercyclical; this proportion generally rises during recessions and declines during expansions. The cyclical pattern for job leavers is not as pronounced as it is for unemployed job losers (chart 2), although the high correlation coefficient between these two series (0.49) tends to confirm their similarity. This evidence would seem to counter a hypothesis that an increase in unemployed job leavers indicates workers' increased confidence in the labor market.

For additional information on job leavers and a technical description of the Current Population Survey from which the data used in this report were derived, contact Randy E. Ilg, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Tel: (202) 691-6378; e-mail: ilg_r@bls.gov

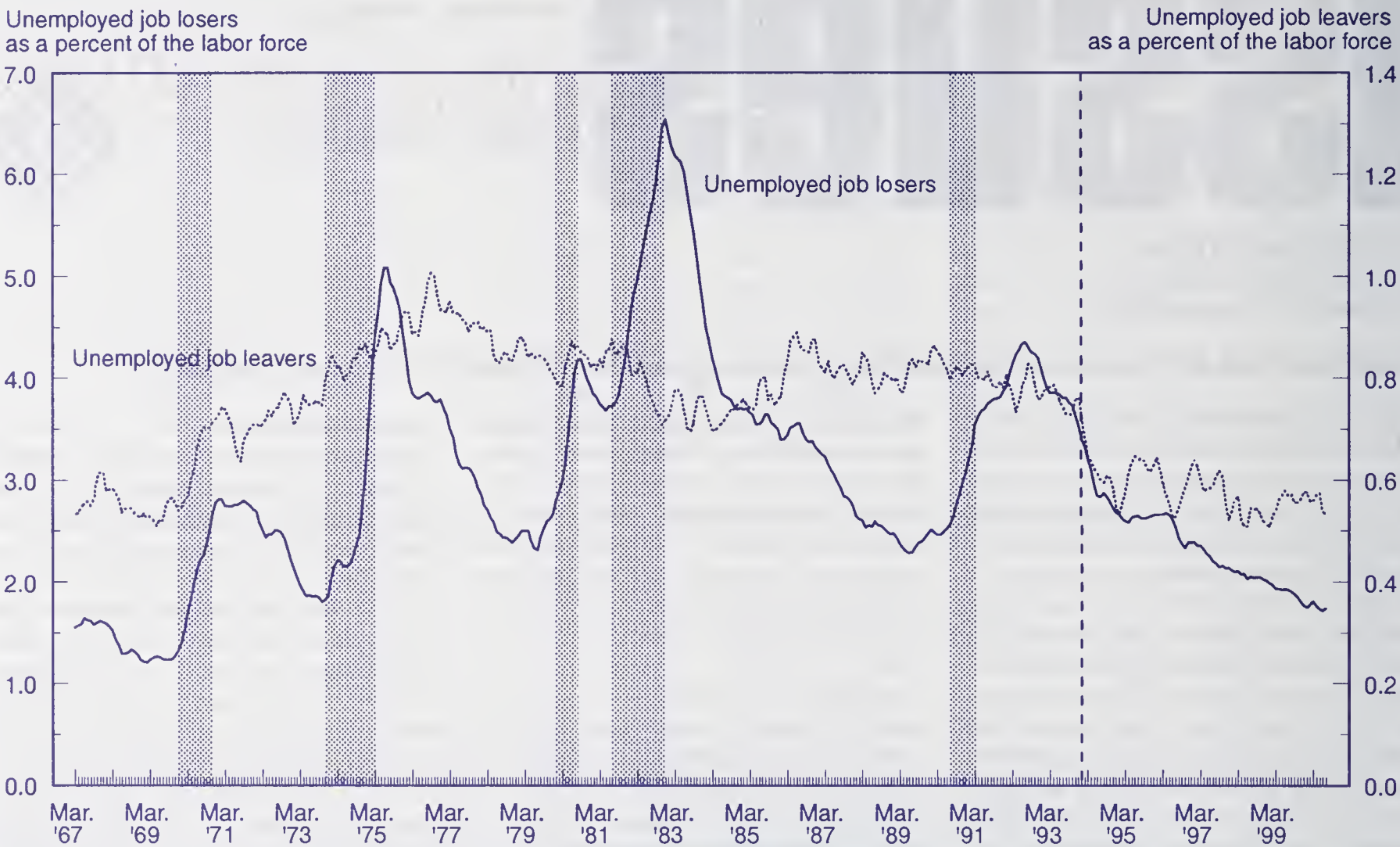
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Chart 1. Percent of unemployed persons by reason for unemployment, 1999 annual averages



¹ The historical comparison of the job leavers series was affected by the introduction of a new questionnaire and survey methodology in January 1994. In particular, several changes to the questionnaire—both definitional and operational—resulted in differences in the way the unemployed are distributed among the reason categories. Although the new methodology did not affect the overall unemployment rate, it did affect the overall composition of individuals' reason for unemployment. Research at the Bureau of Labor Statistics has shown that the new methodology significantly increased the proportion of unemployed classified as reentrants and decreased the proportion of unemployed in the other reason categories.

Chart 2. Unemployed job losers and leavers as a percent of the labor force, seasonally adjusted 3-month moving average, March 1967-July 2000



NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions. Vertical dashed line indicates CPS redesign.

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Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 00-15 August 2000

When one job is not enough

More than 8-1/2 million workers held two or more jobs in May 1997. Four out of every ten did so to meet regular household expenses or to pay off debts. Other common reasons for working more than one job included enjoying the work on the second job (14.5 percent), wanting to save for the future (8.7 percent), wanting to get experience or build up a business (7.7 percent), and wanting some extra money to buy something special (7.9 percent). These results were quite similar to those that were obtained in May 1991, the last time that data on the reasons for working more than one job were collected.¹ (See table and chart.)

The reasons for multiple jobholding varied noticeably among demographic groups. For example, the proportion working more than one job to pay off debts was highest among those aged 16 to 24 (18.2 percent) and then declined with age to a low of 2.1 percent for those 65 and older. Young workers (aged 16 to 24) also were the most likely to hold an extra job in order to get money to buy something special. The group aged 55 and older had the greatest percentage of workers who reported that they worked more than one job because they enjoyed the work on the second job (27 percent). These workers were almost twice as likely as adults aged 25 to 54, and nearly 6 times as likely as teenagers, to moonlight for this reason. The proportion of multiple jobholders who worked more than one job to pay regular household expenses was about 10 percentage points lower for older workers than for persons aged 25 to 54. Nevertheless, nearly a fourth of multiple jobholders aged 55 and older gave this as the reason for working more than one job.

In general, men and women worked more than one job for the same reasons. The sharpest disparities between the sexes occurred among older workers. A large proportion of men aged 55 and older (30.8 percent), worked more than one job because they enjoyed the work on the second job; this compares with

21.8 percent of older women. Older women, on the other hand, were most likely to moonlight in order to meet regular household expenses or to pay off debts—36.3 percent, versus 22.2 percent for older men.

For women who maintained families, the overwhelming reason for working multiple jobs was to meet regular expenses or to pay off debts (64.5 percent); this compares with 49.4 percent of men who maintained families.

A greater percentage of blacks (53.2 percent) and of Hispanics (49.0 percent) than of whites (39.5 percent) also reported that they worked more than one job to meet regular household expenses or to pay off debts. About 15 percent of whites were multiple jobholders because they enjoyed the work on the second job; this was slightly higher than the proportion among blacks and triple the proportion among Hispanics.

As the current economic expansion has continued past May 1997, the number of multiple jobholders has edged down. As mentioned

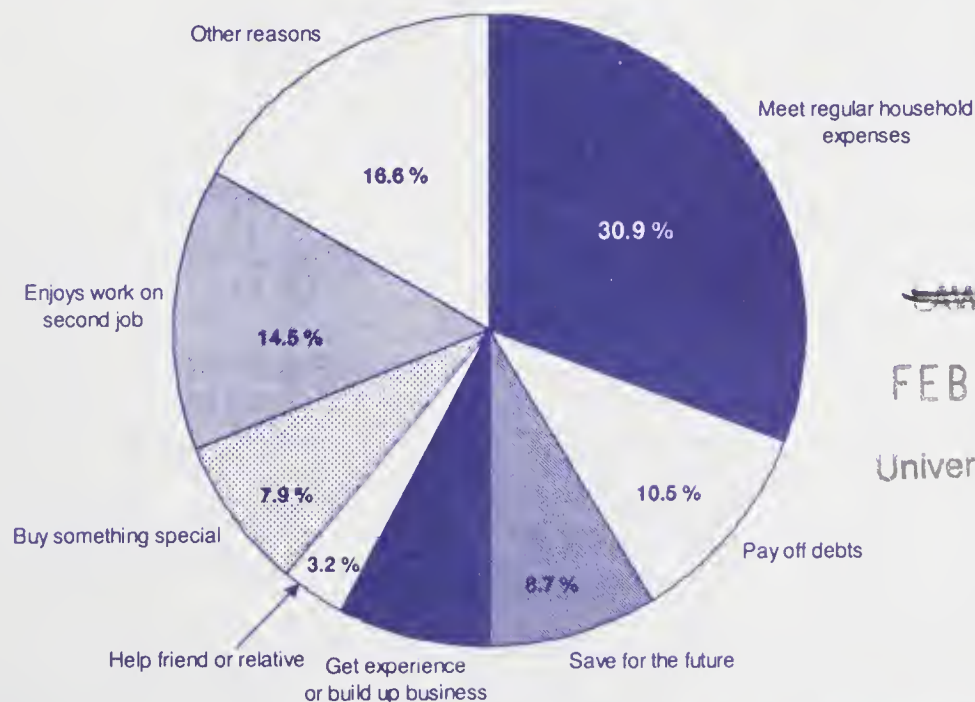
above, in May 1997 and in May 1991, about two-fifths of multiple jobholders worked more than one job in order to meet regular household expenses or to pay off debts. It may be that the number of multiple jobholders has edged down during the period since May 1997 because the continuing strength in the economy has enabled them to meet regular household expenses or pay off debts without having to work more than one job.

For additional information on reasons for multiple jobholding, contact Jennifer Martel, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 691-6378. e-mail address: Martel_J@bls.gov.

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Reasons for working more than one job, May 1997



¹ Data for 1991 were published in "Multiple Jobholding Unchanged in May 1991," USDL 91-547, October 28, 1991.

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Multiple jobholders by age, race, Hispanic origin, sex, marital status, and reason for working at more than one job, May 1997

Characteristic	Total (thou- sands)	Percent distribution by reason								
		Total	To meet regular household expenses	To pay off debts	To save for the future	To get experience or build up a business	To help out a friend or relative	To get extra money to buy something special	Enjoys the work on the second job	Other reasons
Total, 16 years and older	8,751	100.0	30.9	10.5	8.7	7.7	3.2	7.9	14.5	16.6
16 to 24 years	1,274	100.0	24.7	18.2	11.4	5.2	2.3	13.0	6.5	18.5
25 to 34 years	2,054	100.0	34.7	14.2	8.3	9.2	2.4	7.5	10.4	13.4
35 to 44 years	2,607	100.0	32.7	8.1	9.5	8.5	3.7	6.8	15.4	15.3
45 to 54 years	1,986	100.0	31.5	7.6	7.2	8.0	3.8	5.8	17.3	18.8
55 years and older	829	100.0	23.6	4.6	6.1	5.0	3.8	9.4	27.0	20.6
Men, 16 years and older	4,720	100.0	29.3	10.4	10.1	8.4	2.8	7.4	15.9	15.8
16 to 24 years	647	100.0	25.3	17.7	13.2	6.6	3.5	13.5	7.4	12.7
25 to 34 years	1,143	100.0	33.6	16.2	9.8	7.9	1.9	5.0	11.5	14.1
35 to 44 years	1,419	100.0	32.6	7.3	11.0	9.3	2.2	6.8	16.0	14.8
45 to 54 years	1,033	100.0	27.4	6.9	9.3	9.1	3.7	6.5	19.0	18.1
55 years and older	478	100.0	19.1	3.1	5.7	7.6	3.8	8.5	30.8	21.6
Women, 16 years and older	4,031	100.0	32.7	10.7	7.0	7.0	3.7	8.5	12.8	17.6
16 to 24 years	628	100.0	24.1	18.8	9.6	3.9	1.1	12.5	5.6	24.3
25 to 34 years	912	100.0	36.0	11.6	6.3	10.8	3.0	10.7	9.1	12.4
35 to 44 years	1,188	100.0	33.0	9.0	7.8	7.4	5.4	6.8	14.7	15.9
45 to 54 years	953	100.0	35.9	8.3	4.9	6.8	4.0	5.1	15.6	19.5
55 years and older	351	100.0	29.6	6.7	6.7	1.5	3.8	10.7	21.8	19.3
White	7,566	100.0	29.7	9.8	8.8	8.0	3.5	8.0	15.2	17.0
Black	874	100.0	39.0	14.2	7.9	5.6	1.4	6.9	11.4	13.8
Hispanic origin	557	100.0	39.5	9.5	9.7	5.4	3.0	11.2	4.6	17.0
Men:										
Single	1,238	100.0	24.4	15.6	11.1	8.0	2.4	10.1	10.3	18.0
Married, spouse present	2,910	100.0	31.2	8.1	10.1	8.3	3.0	6.3	19.2	13.9
Widowed, divorced, or separated	573	100.0	30.6	10.5	7.8	9.8	2.8	7.1	11.0	20.3
Women:										
Single	1,145	100.0	28.7	15.6	9.4	3.5	2.5	12.9	9.0	18.3
Married, spouse present	1,941	100.0	28.8	7.2	6.5	9.9	4.1	7.4	16.5	19.6
Widowed, divorced, or separated	946	100.0	45.4	12.2	4.9	5.1	4.4	5.4	9.9	12.8
Women who maintain families	577	100.0	52.6	11.9	5.0	1.6	2.0	6.1	8.3	12.4

NOTE: Data on the number of multiple jobholders differ from the regularly published monthly data because of differences in the estimation procedures used to produce the data. Detail may not sum to 100 percent due to rounding. Detail for race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals because data for the "other races" group are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups..

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 01– 02 May 2001

Characteristics and spending patterns of consumer units in the lowest 10 percent of the expenditure distribution

How do poor consumers differ from the average consumer? Typically, consumers' ability to purchase goods and services is measured by their income, and consumers are classified as "poor" if their income falls below some standard level, such as the poverty threshold. However, income is often mismeasured due to nonresponse or underreporting. Although the Consumer Expenditure Survey (CE) was designed primarily to collect expenditure data, it also collects income and assets data for participating consumer units (CUs).¹ To utilize the strength of the CE—its expenditure data—and the positive correlation observed between income and expenditures, this study uses total expenditures instead of income as the classifying variable. This report highlights the characteristics and spending patterns of CUs in the lowest 10 percent of the expenditure distribution in 1999.²

¹ A *consumer unit* includes (1) members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; (2) a person living alone or sharing a household with others, but who is responsible for at least 2 of the following 3 major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses; or (3) two or more persons living together who pool their income to make joint expenditure decisions.

² Data presented in this study are for CUs interviewed from January through December 1999. Due to the 3-month reference period of the quarterly Interview component of the Consumer Expenditure Survey, the data for this report include data for October 1998 through November 1999; this effectively constitutes 12 months of data due to the rotating sample design of the survey.

³ The total outlays approach is believed to be a better measure of the regular out-of-pocket outlays of consumers than is the total expenditures measure. See John Rogers and Maureen Gray, "CE data: quintiles of income versus quintiles of outlays," *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1994, pp. 32–37.

⁴ CUs in the lowest outlay decile could include CUs who are wealthy, but choose to spend little, and exclude CUs who are poor but spend much using credit. Excluding homeowners without mortgage payments could also exclude CUs who are in fact poor.

⁵ A reference person is the first member mentioned by the respondent when asked "to start with the name of the person or one of the persons who owns or rents the home."

Definitions

The measure of expenditures used in this study is total outlays, which measures regular out-of-pocket spending by consumers.³ Total outlays include the transaction costs of goods and services, excise and sales taxes, personal insurance, retirement and pension payments, and payments of principal and interest on financed vehicles and home mortgages. This measure excludes the net purchase price of financed vehicles, because it would have a large one-time effect on the expenditure distribution and therefore not be considered "regular" spending. Also excluded are cash contributions and occupation-related expense items, which are collected only in the fifth interview of the survey.

In this study, "poor" consumers are considered to be those with little income and negligible assets. To be consistent with this definition, the CU population analyzed in this study excludes full-time college students, whose economic circumstances might be expected to change in the near future, and homeowners

who no longer have mortgage payments.⁴ The remaining 69 percent of CUs in the population were then ranked by their total outlays and divided into two groups—one consisting of CUs in the lowest 10 percent of the total outlays distribution (henceforth referred to as the lowest "outlay decile"), and the other consisting of all other CUs.

Demographics

The average CU in the lowest outlay decile differs from other CUs in that it is smaller in size and has fewer members under age 18, fewer earners, and a higher proportion of reference persons who are older and are female.⁵ (See table.)

Husband-and-wife-type families (with and without children) comprise 11 percent of CUs in the lowest outlay decile, but 54 percent of other CUs. The most prevalent family types in the lowest outlay decile are single CUs (62 percent) and single-parent CUs (14 percent). The single CUs in the lowest outlay decile are

Average annual expenditures, expenditure shares, and characteristics of consumer units (CUs)¹ in the lowest outlay decile compared with those of other CUs, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1999

Item	CUs in lowest outlay decile	CUs in all other deciles	Item	CUs in lowest outlay decile	CUs in all other deciles
Total number of CUs ¹	7,530	67,806	Income before taxes	\$7,202	\$40,734
Sample size	2,024	19,191	Average total outlays ...	8,391	40,937
Average age of reference person	49.6	43.2	Major outlay categories:		
Average number in CU:			Housing	3,766	16,154
Persons	1.7	2.8	Shelter	2,665	11,394
Children under 184	.9	Utilities, fuels, and public services	957	2,592
Earners6	1.6	Food	2,127	5,620
Percent of reference persons:			Food at home	1,872	3,998
Female	60.3	42.5	Food away from home	255	1,622
Aged 65 and older	28.1	8.5	Transportation	654	6,984
Working	46.5	83.6	Vehicles	106	3,108
Percent distribution by family type:			Gasoline and motor oil	256	1,195
Husband and wife only	7.0	18.5	Public transportation .	65	446
Husband and wife with kids	3.9	35.0	Health care	470	1,713
Other husband and wife families9	4.8	Health insurance	303	861
Single parent	13.5	7.4	Clothing		
Single	61.8	20.4	Personal insurance and pensions	333	4,398
Other families	13.0	13.9			

¹ Excluded are full-time college students and homeowners without mortgages.

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also generally older—about 36 percent of the single CUs in the lowest outlay decile are aged 65 and older, compared with 20 percent of other single CUs. There also is a contrast in the marital status of single-parent CUs—60 percent of CUs in the lowest outlay decile were never married, compared with 26 percent of their counterparts outside the lowest decile.

Thirty-eight percent of reference persons in the lowest outlay decile were engaged in retail, service, or manual jobs, and about three percent in managerial/professional jobs. In contrast, the proportions for reference persons of other CUs were 54 percent and 18 percent, respectively. About 53 percent of the the

reference persons in the lowest outlay decile had not worked in the past year, compared with 16 percent of their counterparts in other CUs.

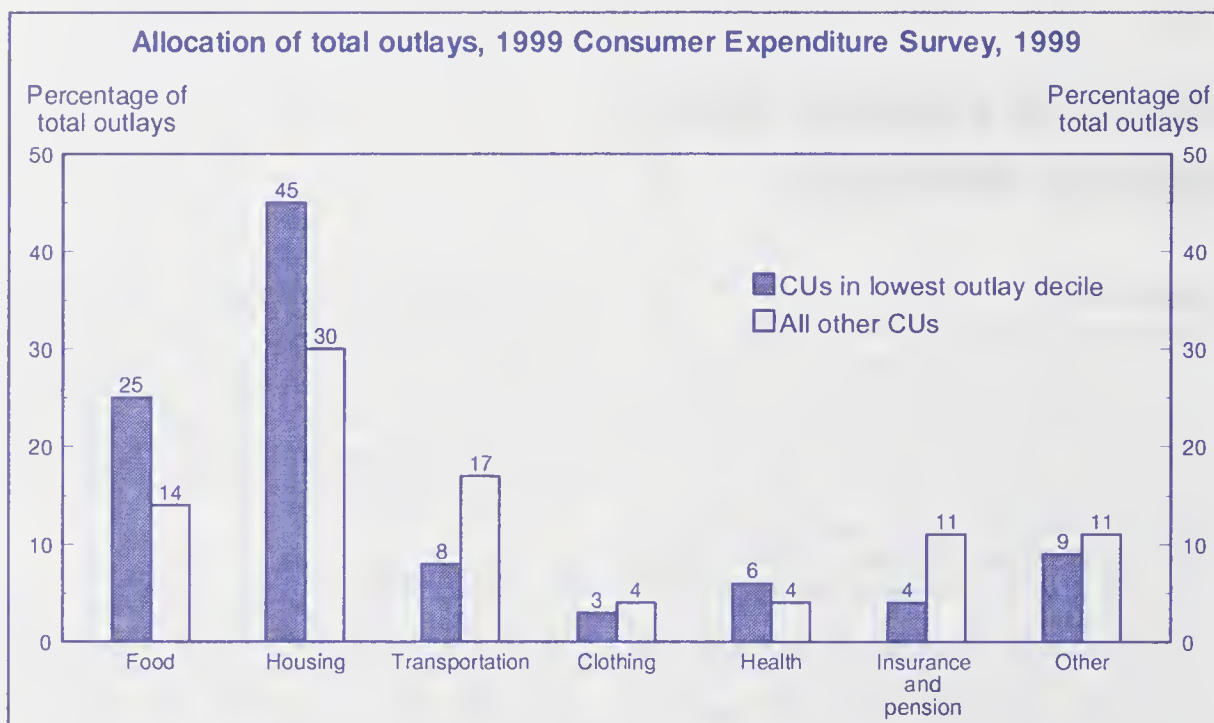
Spending patterns

The reported income before taxes for CUs in the lowest outlay decile averages \$7,202, about one-sixth the average reported for other CUs. For the lowest outlay decile, wages and salaries account for the largest share (46 percent) of income before taxes; Social Security and Railroad Retirement amount to 31 percent; and public assistance in the form of welfare, supplementary security income, and Food Stamps accounts for 16 percent. The distribution is sub-

stantially different for the other CUs, with the proportions being 86 percent, 3 percent, and 1 percent, respectively.

The average total outlays per CU in the lowest outlay decile is \$8,391, about one-fifth the total outlays of other CUs. Housing is the highest outlay category for both groups. (See chart.) Within the housing component, both groups allocate about the same proportion to shelter (71 percent); however, CUs in the lowest outlay decile allocate a larger proportion to utilities, fuel, and public services (25 percent, compared with 16 percent for other CUs). The second largest share of total outlays is food for CUs in the lowest outlay decile (25 percent) but transportation for other CUs (17 percent). While outlays on food and housing represent 70 percent of total outlays for the average CU in the lowest outlay decile, these categories make up 53 percent of total outlays for other CUs. CUs in the lowest decile allocated 5.6 percent of total outlays to health care, while other CUs allocated 4.2 percent. CUs in the lowest outlay decile allocated 4 percent to personal insurance and pensions, compared with 11 percent for other CUs.

For further information on the data presented here, contact Lucilla Tan at (202) 691-6900. For general information about the CE survey, send email to cexinfo@bls.gov. To find Consumer Expenditure Survey data on the Internet, access <http://stats.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS Consumer Expenditure Survey homepage. Material in this publication is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 691-5200; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.



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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 01-05 November 2001

Who was affected as the economy started to slow?

The labor market weakened considerably between late 2000 and the third quarter of 2001. Overall employment growth slowed, large job losses occurred in manufacturing, and the unemployment rate rose by 0.8 percentage point, from 4.0 to 4.8 percent. (See chart 1.) The data presented herein do not reflect the impact of the terrorist attacks of September 11. The labor market clearly had been weakening before the attacks, and those events exacerbated this weakness.

Even prior to the events of September 11, questions had arisen as to *who* had been adversely affected to the greatest degree. There is little doubt that many workers in manufacturing and related industries had lost jobs, and that those losses affected every major demographic group. But, were higher paid, highly skilled individuals affected to a greater extent than lower paid, less skilled workers?

Data from the Current Population Survey indicate that, between third-quarter 2000 and third-quarter 2001, net employment declined only among job categories with mid-level earnings, largely reflecting the job losses in manufacturing. In the third quarter of 2001, employment also declined substantially in higher paid job categories. These findings are based on employment changes of occupation-industry categories that have been subdivided by their relative earnings into highest, middle, and lowest earnings groups.¹

¹ For a more detailed description of this methodology, see Randy E. Ilg, "The nature of employment growth, 1989-95," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1996, pp. 29-36. Following methods employed earlier by Ilg, major occupation-industry pairs (such as professionals in manufacturing) were ranked in descending order by their median weekly earnings in 1996. The categories were then divided into three groups—highest, middle, and lowest earnings—each of which accounted for approximately one-third of employment in 1996. An employment time series for each occupation-industry category from January 1996 through September 2001 was developed, and data for the job categories were sorted into the appropriate earnings groups.

In recent years, employment in the highest earnings group has generally trended upward, and employment gains have far surpassed those in either of the other two earnings groups. (See chart 2.) In the third quarter of 2001, however, employment among higher paid workers fell by about half a million. Virtually all of the high-paying managerial and professional occupations are concentrated in this group. The highest earnings group also includes technical occupations in a variety of industries as well. Those most severely affected by the recent employment decline in the highest earnings group include managers in manufacturing and sales representatives in wholesale trade and in finance, insurance, and real estate.

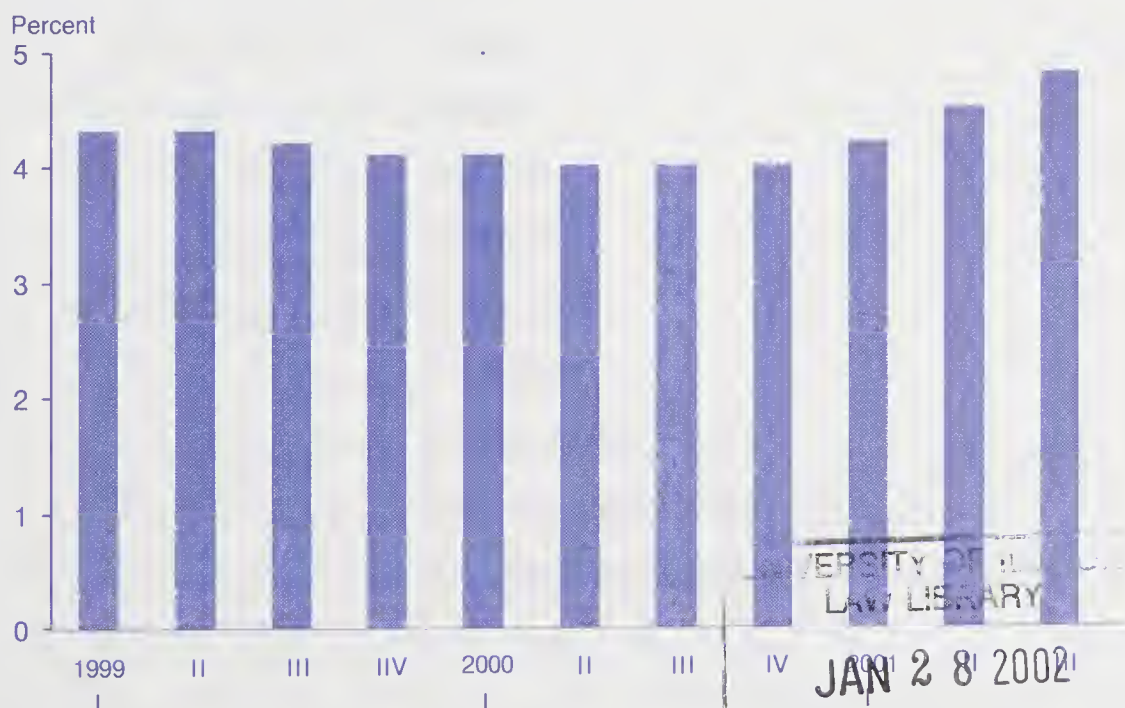
Employment in the middle earnings group had shown little net change during 1998 and 1999; it rose slightly from early to mid-2000. Since the third quarter of 2000, however, employment in the middle earnings group has trended downward, falling by about 900,000. Much of the employment decline in the middle

earnings group can be linked to substantial job losses among operators, fabricators, and laborers, as well as among skilled production workers and clerical personnel in manufacturing.

Employment in the lowest earnings group had generally trended upward in recent years, but has shown no clear trend since the fourth quarter of 2000. Sales and service occupations in retail trade and clerical and service occupations in the services industry account for a disproportionate share of employment in the lowest earnings group, and some erratic month-to-month movements have occurred in those job categories recently.

In summary, employment has declined in the highest earnings group since the second quarter of this year. In the middle earnings group, job losses have been continuous from last year and total about twice those in the highest earnings group. For both earnings groups, much of the employment decline appears to be associated with the downturn in manufacturing that began in mid-2000.

CHART 1. Unemployment rate, seasonally adjusted quarterly averages, 1999-2001

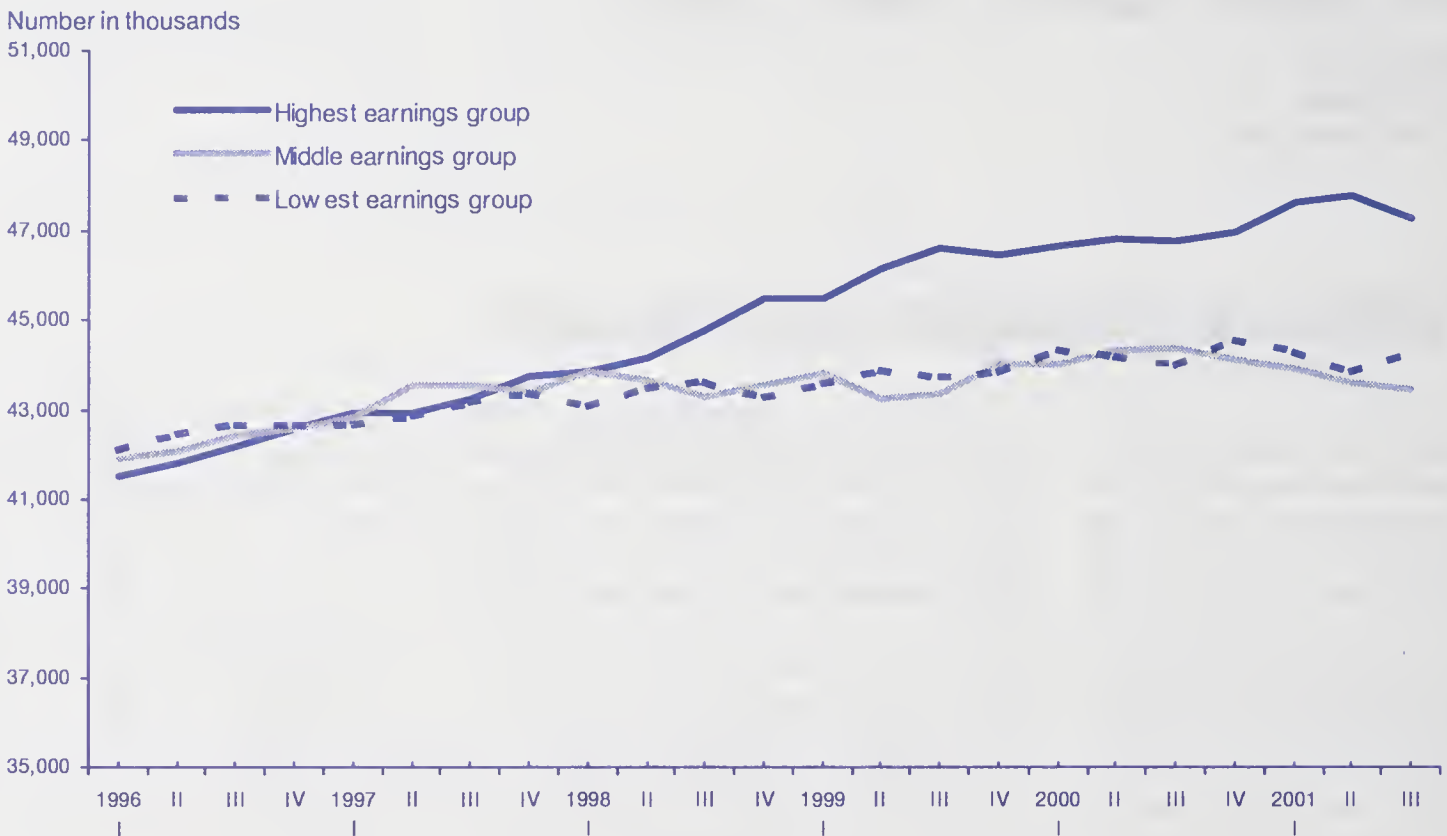


FOR ADDITIONAL INFORMATION on the impact of the recent slowdown on employment and a technical description of the Current Population Survey from which the data used in this report were derived, contact Randy E. Ilg,

Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 691-6378; e-mail: ilg_r@bls.gov. Information in this report is available to sen-

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CHART 2. Employment growth by earning group, first-quarter 1996 through third-quarter 2001, seasonally adjusted quarterly averages



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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Summary 01-06 December 2001

New and emerging occupations

The composition and quality of the workforce is constantly changing in response to economic forces, social trends, and technology. As a result, old occupations may grow or decline in employment and new occupations may emerge. The occupations discussed here are those that either have not appeared in the Bureau of Labor Statistics Occupational Employment Survey in previous years or are appearing with increased frequency. New occupations have been most likely to appear in the services and distribution industries, but every sector has been affected to some degree. (See chart 1.)

Human service occupations. People are taking better care of their personal appearance and physical conditioning. They also are living longer with the support of advanced medical technologies. More attention is being devoted to schooling, protecting, and developing young people and more efforts are being made to develop parenting skills within increasingly diverse family structures.

Occupations and industries associated with these social and health trends include aerobic and other exercise instructors, in settings ranging from general hospitals to membership sports and recreational clubs. The healthcare needs of an aging population are creating demands for dialysis reuse technicians in kidney dialysis centers and for medical equipment repairers in hospitals.

The needs of the youth population have resulted in a demand for schoolbus aides, attendants, and monitors on local passenger transportation, on schoolbuses, and at elementary and secondary schools. Various civic, social, and fraternal organizations now employ afterschool counselors and parenting educators and trainers.

Business communication occupations. The commercial world is busy wiring itself to incorporate advances in communications. At the ends of the wires, new categories of technicians are installing and maintaining the com-

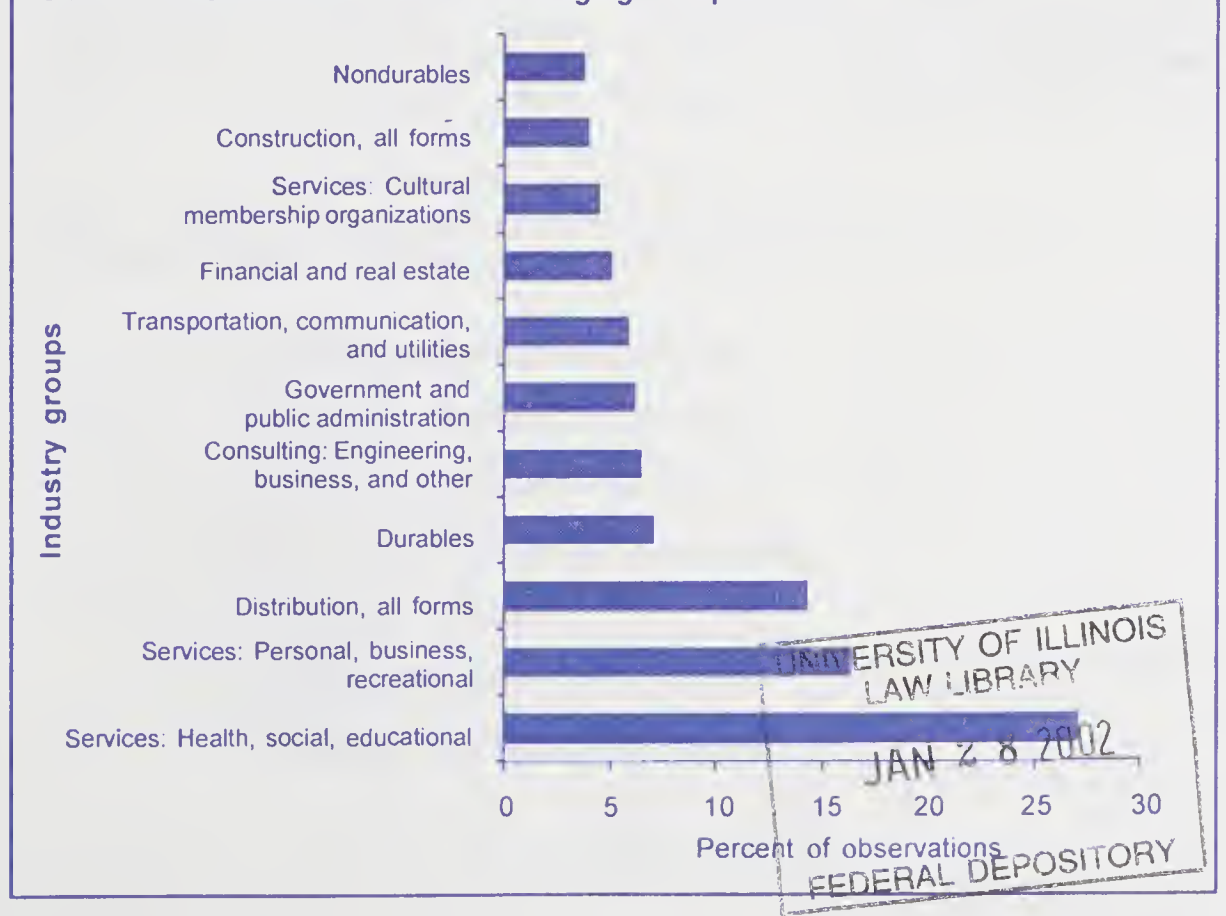
puter and telecommunications devices that are making the age of e-commerce possible. This basic structure links the Web sites developed and maintained by a variety of Webmasters and Web designers in industries such as book publishing and printing, electronic computers, camera and photographic supply stores, industrial machinery and equipment firms, and a variety of miscellaneous retail stores.

The graphic visual content used at Internet and intranet sites to support e-commerce appears to be driving requirements for designers and Web advertising specialists who can meet the current preference for "visualization" in all forms: Catalogs, product training and instructions, and continuing service notices. Within the Internet occupations, more new occupations were linked to such Web site development tasks than to either site administration or support. (See chart 2.)

Business air travel occupations. Modern business enterprises seek more rapid air transportation to wherever it is needed. This has been reflected in the increasing emergence of both ground support personnel and aircrews in industries as different as petroleum bulk stations and terminals and the offices and clinics of doctors of medicine. Helicopter pilots have increasingly been reported in the nonscheduled air transportation industry.

Business office occupations. The sheer physical layout of office workspace has changed radically, and created new occupations for persons who install and rearrange modular furniture. Desktop publishing and document production has changed the character of much work within those cubicles. Multitalented professionals now deliver finished products ready for immediate printing or electronic transfer in this way,

CHART 1. Industries with new and emerging occupations



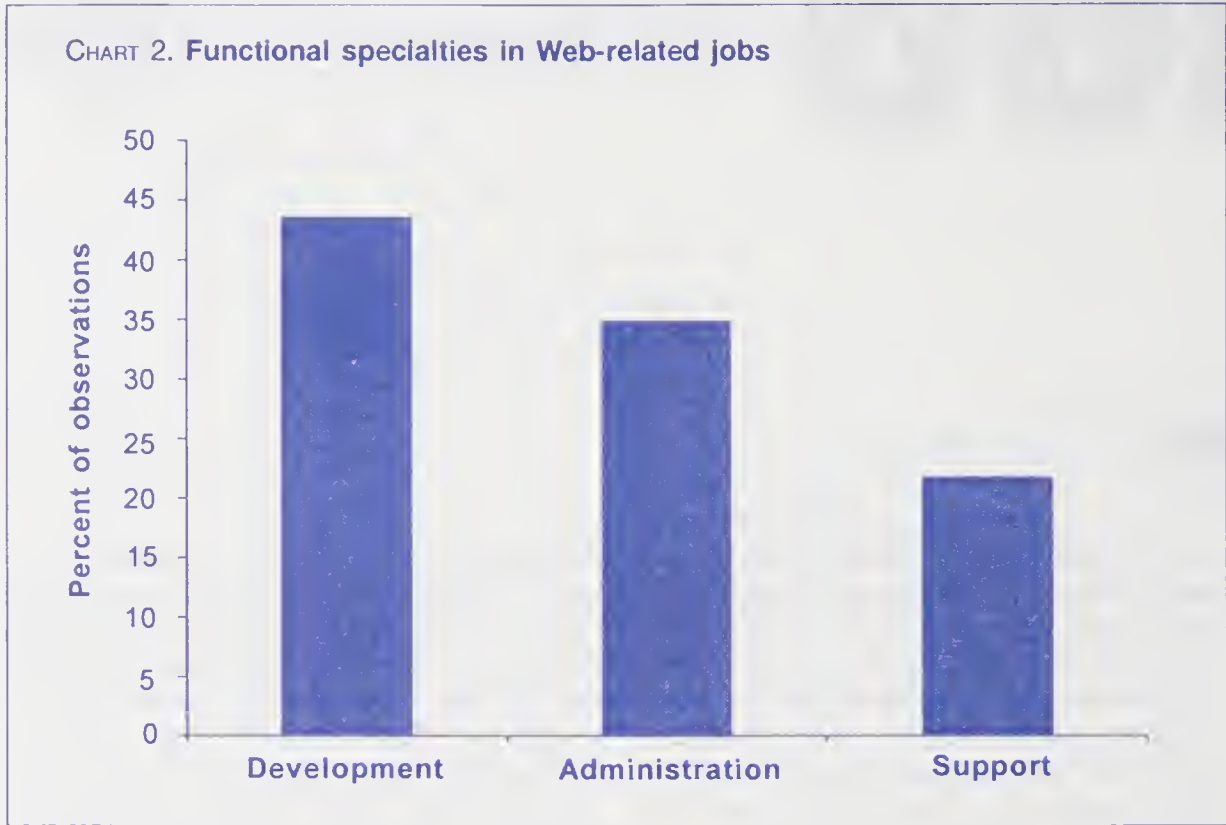
contributing to new productivity gains. Desktop publishing specialists have appeared in industries from electronic connectors, components, and accessories producers to a variety of business consultants.

Global business, new occupations. The manufacturing plant environment also is changing. New emphasis is being placed on meeting the higher engineering and production standards required for International Organization for Standards (ISO) certification. The ISO publishes its

International Standards as the result of negotiated agreements. These standards require a new category of quality and industrial engineering expertise, resulting in jobs for ISO coordinators and ISO specialists.

Regulatory compliance. Government emphasis on safety and quality is influencing the demand for compliance specialists. In addition, the standards of voluntary organizations are having a similar effect. A variety of compliance roles has evolved in the business sector, including those of corporate compliance officers, compliance coordinators, and compliance analysts. Occupational, construction, environmental, and health safety requirements are creating a need for technicians who collect and test a variety of samples. New safety demands have created the need for specialists who install fencing and other protective devices.

For further information on new and emerging occupations, contact Jerome Pikulinski at 202-691-5095 or the Occupational Employment Statistics program at oesinfo@bls.gov. Material in this publication is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: 202-691-5200. Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339. ■



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Summary 02-02 March 2002

Housing expenditures

Regardless of their income, family size, or geographic location, consumers must obtain food, clothing, and housing. This report compares housing expenditures of various demographic groups.

Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Consumer Expenditure (CE) Survey show that housing expenditures typically constitute the largest portion of the average consumer's outlays. In 1999, total expenditures averaged \$36,995 per consumer unit (CU),¹ of which 32.6 percent (\$12,057) was allocated to total housing. Because housing is such a major expense for consumers, it is important to understand how the expenditures differ across demographic groups such as homeowners and renters, age groups, and family types. Shares, or percentages of average annual expenditures, are used to show how different groups allocate their total annual expenditures.

In the CE survey, housing expenditures are divided into five major categories: Shelter; utilities, fuels, and public services; household operations; housekeeping supplies; and household furnishings and equipment. In 1999, the average consumer unit had expenditure shares of 19.0 percent (\$7,016) for shelter; 6.4 percent (\$2,377) for utilities, fuels, and public ser-

vices; 1.8 percent (\$666) for household operations; 1.3 percent (\$498) for housekeeping supplies; and 4.1 percent (\$1,499) for household furnishings and equipment. Shelter and utilities together accounted for 25.4 percent (\$9,085) of expenditures. The expenditures for shelter are combined with those for utilities, fuels, and public services to allow for comparisons among demographic groups that have different proportions of homeowners and renters because renters often have utility costs included in their rent payments.

Housing tenure. Homeowners had higher average annual expenditures (\$42,753) than did renters (\$26,310) in 1999. However, homeowners allocated a smaller share (32 percent) of average annual expenditures to housing than did renters (35 percent). This is mainly due to a difference in shares allocated for shelter and utilities.² Homeowners allocated 24 percent of average annual expenditures to shelter and utilities, whereas renters allocated 29 percent. This difference may be explained by the effect of income on expenditure patterns.

Homeowners had average annual income³ of \$53,056, nearly twice that of renters, who had \$27,514. Renters, with much less discre-

tionary income, allocate a higher percentage of expenditures to "necessities." In the other housing expenditure categories, homeowners and renters had relatively similar expenditure shares.

Age. Expenditures on housing varied among age groups.⁴ The oldest age group (that is, those consumer units whose reference person is aged 75 or older) allocated the largest share: of the total spending (\$22,884) by the oldest age group, 36 percent was spent on housing. This group also spent the second largest share on shelter and utilities (26.6 percent), and the largest share on household operations (5 percent). However, the 75-and-older age group spent the least on household furnishings and equipment (3 percent), which could be attributable to the fact that they have had a lifetime to accumulate furnishings and equipment. The 25-to-34 age group allocated the second largest share (35 percent) of average annual expenditures (\$36,158) for housing. Most of their housing dollars went to shelter and utilities, which accounted for 27.3 percent of their total spending, the largest share among all of the age groups. Those consumer units with reference persons under age 25 allocated the smallest share for housing, at 30 percent of average annual ex-

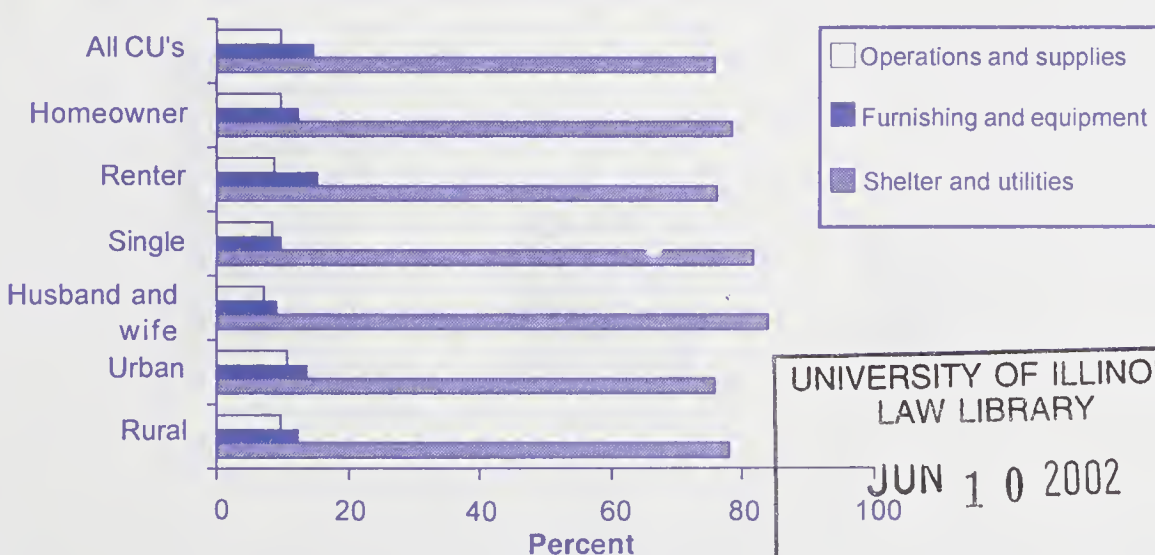
¹ A consumer unit is defined as members of a household related by blood, marriage, adoption, or other legal arrangement; a single person living alone or sharing a household with others but who is financially independent; or two or more persons living together who share responsibility for at least 2 out of 3 major types of expenses—food, housing, and other expenses.

² The CE survey does not include mortgage principal payments as a component of housing expenditures, as principal payments are considered to be reductions in liabilities; however, it does include the interest payment portion of the mortgage.

³ All income figures represent income before taxes.

⁴ Age group is determined by the age of the reference person, who is the first person mentioned by the respondent when asked to "start with the name of the person or one of the persons who owns or rents the home." It is with respect to this person that the relationship of the other CU members is determined.

CHART 1. Shares of total housing expenditures spent on subcomponents, by selected demographic groups, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1999



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penditures (\$21,704). This group also had the lowest expenditure shares for household operations (0.8 percent) and for housekeeping supplies (1 percent). The under-25 age group had expenditure shares of 25 percent for shelter and utilities. The 55-to-64 age group had the second lowest expenditure share for housing (31 percent) and spent the least for shelter and utilities (24 percent). In addition, this group had the largest share for household furnishings and equipment (5 percent).

Composition of consumer unit. Housing expenditure shares also tend to be allocated differently across different family types. Single consumer units allocated 37 percent of average annual expenditures (\$22,373) for housing; the shelter and utilities component totaled 30 percent of average annual expenditures. In contrast, consumer units with a husband, wife, and children allocated 32 per-

cent of average annual expenditures (\$51,154) for housing, and spent approximately 24 percent on shelter and utilities. These differences in housing shares between singles and husband-and-wife households may reflect differences in the distribution of homeowners and renters. As noted previously, renters, on average, have significantly less income than homeowners and, therefore, less discretionary income. Among single consumer units, 49 percent are homeowners and 51 percent are renters. This is in contrast to the 79 percent of married-couple-with-children consumer units who report owning and the 21 percent who report renting their homes. Therefore, the larger proportion of single consumer units that are renters may explain the larger expenditure shares that they allocate to total housing and to shelter and utilities. Also, single consumer units have substantially less income (\$25,247) than husband-and-wife-with-children consumer units (\$63,666). Expenditure shares for house-

hold operations, housekeeping supplies, and household furnishings and equipment are relatively similar for single consumer units (2 percent, 1 percent, 4 percent) and husband-and-wife-with-children consumer units (2 percent, 1 percent, 4 percent).

For further information about the data presented here, contact Meaghan Duetsch in the Division of Consumer Expenditure Surveys, Bureau of Labor Statistics at (202) 691-6871 or by e-mail at duetsch_m@bls.gov. To find Consumer Expenditure Survey data on the Internet, access <http://www.bls.gov/csxhome.htm>, the BLS Consumer Expenditure Survey homepage. Material in this publication is in the public domain, and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 691-5200; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.

Table. Average annual expenditures and housing expenditure shares, Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1999

Item	Total expenditures	Percent homeowner	Percent renter	Expenditure shares					
				Housing	Shelter	Utilities	Operations	Supplies	Furnishings
All consumer units	\$36,995	65	35	32.6	19.0	6.4	1.8	1.3	4.1
Housing tenure:									
Homeowner	42,753	100	0	31.9	17.7	6.5	2.0	1.4	4.3
Renter	26,310	0	100	34.6	22.9	6.1	1.3	1.1	3.2
Age:									
Under 25	21,704	13	87	30.3	19.1	5.4	0.8	1.0	4.0
25 to 34	36,158	45	55	34.6	21.1	6.2	2.1	1.2	4.0
35 to 44	42,792	67	33	33.2	20.1	6.0	1.9	1.4	3.7
45 to 54	46,511	77	23	31.2	18.3	6.1	1.3	1.2	4.3
55 to 64	39,394	80	20	30.7	16.9	6.6	1.2	1.4	4.5
65 to 74	29,864	82	18	32.2	16.5	7.9	1.5	1.7	4.5
75 and older over	22,884	77	23	35.9	18.3	8.3	4.7	1.5	3.2
Composition of consumer unit:									
Single	22,373	49	51	36.7	23.0	6.9	2.1	1.1	3.6
Total, husband and wife with children	51,154	79	21	32.0	18.4	5.9	2.2	1.4	4.0

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U.S. Department of Labor
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Summary 02-04 June 2002

Consumer Spending Patterns Differ by Region

Households across the country make decisions every day on how to allocate their earnings, be it for life's necessities such as food and housing or for pleasurable pursuits such as reading and entertainment. These spending patterns may well be specific to regions of the country. Or, more simply, do consumers in the Midwest make different choices about how to spend their dollars than do those in the Northeast, South, or West?

Expenditures vary among regions because of many factors: Prices, income, population characteristics, climate, consumer tastes, family size, and so on. For example, in 2000, consumer units in the Northeast and West had higher incomes than did those in the Midwest and South. Households in the West were somewhat younger, while those in the Northeast averaged the oldest reference persons in the survey. Consumer units in the Midwest owned an average of 2.2 vehicles, compared with only 1.6 for those in the Northeast. Home ownership was most common in the Midwest and least prevalent in the West. Just how similar or diverse a region's expenditure choices are will depend, at least in part, on the mix of consumer characteristics, tastes, and needs.

Overall, consumer units in the United States spent an average of \$38,045 annually in 2000. Housing was the largest component of a consumer's expenses, accounting for around one-third of all expenditures regardless of region, while transportation costs and food purchases together accounted for roughly another third. Still, some regional variations were evident in the proportion (or share) of a household's budget allocated for items within these broad categories.

Among the various expenditures for housing, the cost of shelter, including expenses associated with owning, renting, and maintaining a residence, required the largest outlay in every region but varied from 54 percent of the housing budget in the South to 62 percent in the West. Other housing costs include utilities, fuels, and public services, which accounted for the highest proportion of all housing expenditures in the South (24 percent) and the lowest

in the West (16 percent). In general, consumers in the South and Midwest spent a smaller share of their budget on housing and were more likely to be homeowners than were their counterparts in the other regions. Conversely, renting was more prevalent in the Northeast and West, where the expenditure shares for shelter were higher.

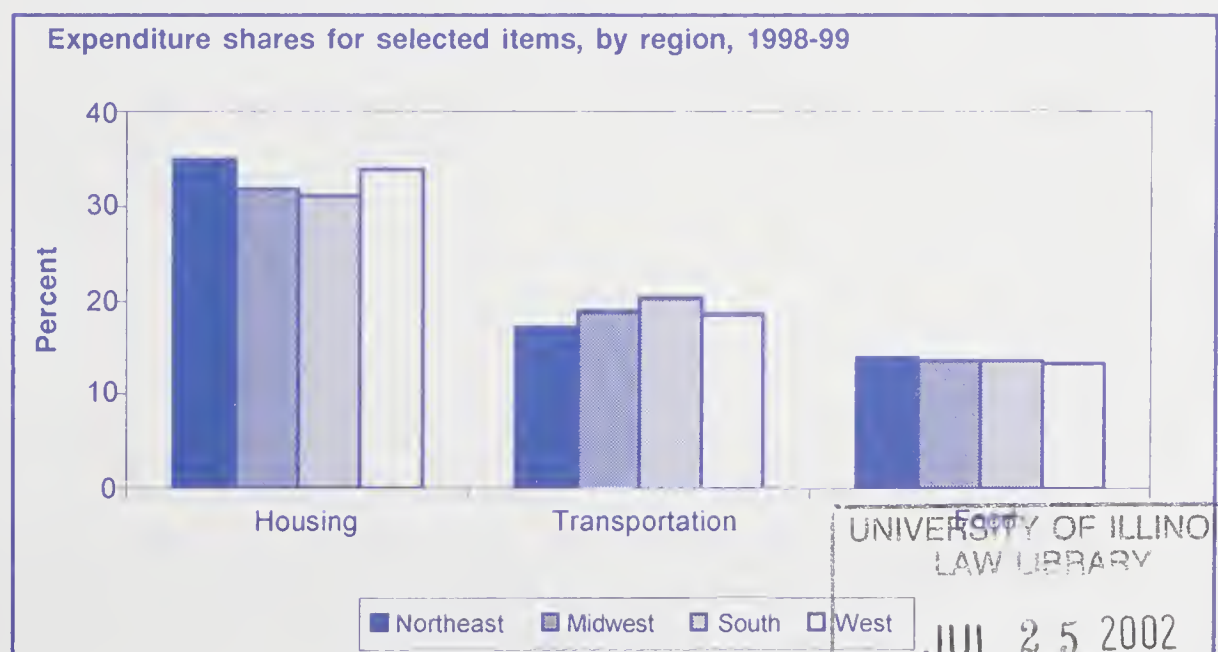
Transportation, the second largest item, accounted for approximately one-fifth of a household's budget, ranging from 17.1 percent in the Northeast to 20.8 percent in the South. Regional variations were more apparent in the distribution of a consumer's transportation dollars. Households in the Northeast spent the highest share on public transportation (9.0 percent) and the smallest on vehicle purchases (40.8 percent). Those in the Midwest and South, on the other hand, spent less on public transit, with shares of 5.1 and 3.9 percent, respectively, but allocated almost one-half of their transportation dollars for vehicle purchases.

Regardless of region, the proportion of the household budget spent for food was close to the national average of 13.6 percent. Even with such similar total shares for food, there was some regional variation in how food bud-

gets were allocated. For example, households in the Midwest spent a larger share (44 percent) of their total food budget on food prepared away from home, such as restaurant meals, carryout, and catered affairs, than did those in other regions of the country, which averaged either 40 or 41 percent.

Among the other major expenditure categories, only healthcare costs showed much regional variation, averaging 4.8 percent of all the budget in both the Northeast and West, but 5.5 and 6.2 percent, respectively, in the Midwest and South. Some items showed virtually no regional distinctiveness: Personal insurance and pensions, personal care products, alcoholic beverages, and reading. In general, when differences existed, Southern and Midwestern consumers had more similar spending patterns, while households in the Northeast and West were closer in their expenditure choices.

Additional consumer expenditure data are available online at <http://www.bls.gov/cex>. Material in this publication is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. This information is available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: 202-691-5200. Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339.



Consumer unit characteristics and percent distribution of expenditures for the United States and regions, 2000

Item	U.S. average	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Consumer unit characteristics:					
Income before taxes ¹	\$44,649	\$47,439	\$44,377	\$41,984	\$46,670
Age of reference person	48.2	49.5	48.4	48.3	46.6
Percent homeowner	66	62	70	68	60
Average number in consumer unit:					
Persons	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.6
Children under 187	.6	.7	.7	.7
Persons 65 and over3	.3	.3	.3	.3
Earners	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.4
Vehicles	1.9	1.6	2.2	1.9	2.0
Average annual expenditures	\$38,045	\$38,902	\$39,213	\$34,707	\$41,328
Total (percent)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food	13.6	13.8	13.4	13.6	13.4
Alcoholic beverages	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.1
Housing	32.4	34.7	30.5	31.3	33.8
Apparel and services	4.9	5.4	4.9	4.7	4.7
Transportation	19.5	17.1	20.0	20.8	19.2
Health care	5.4	4.8	5.5	6.2	4.8
Entertainment	4.9	4.9	5.2	4.7	4.9
Personal care products and services	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.4
Reading4	.4	.4	.3	.4
Education	1.7	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.6
Tobacco products and smoking supplies8	.8	.8	1.0	.6
Miscellaneous	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1
Cash contributions	3.1	2.7	4.1	2.7	3.0
Personal insurance and pensions	8.8	8.7	8.9	8.9	8.9

¹ Income values derived from “complete income reporters” only.

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Issues in Labor Statistics



U.S. Department of Labor
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Summary 02-06 September 2002

Declining teen labor force participation

During economic expansions, the proportion of teenagers in the labor force usually grows. However, during the exceptional labor market conditions of the mid- to late 1990s, the labor force participation rate for 16- to 19-year-olds—the share of their population either working or looking for work—changed very little. In fact, there was a general downtrend in teenage labor force activity for July—the month during which the highest proportion of teens is in the labor market. In July 2000, the labor force participation rate for teens was at its lowest level since 1965.¹

As the accompanying chart shows, between 1994 and 2000, the July labor force participation rate for teens declined from 65.4 to 62.3 percent. This decline occurred even as the unemployment rate for teens was falling to its lowest level in over three decades. Thus, adverse job market conditions, the usual explanation for declining teen work activity, were not the cause during this period. Data from the Current Population Survey indicate that an increasing rate of school enrollment in the summer was a factor behind the decline in teen summer labor force participation.

The percent of teens enrolled in school in July increased from 19.5 to 27.0 percent between 1994 and 2000.² (See table.) This trend mostly reflects an increase in the percent of teens enrolled in high school; also during that time, the proportion of teens enrolled in college edged upward. Teens attending school in the summer are far less likely to be in the labor force than are those not enrolled. Thus, the increasing proportion of students in July exerted downward pressure on the overall teen labor force participation rate for July during the 1994-2000 period.

In addition to rising enrollment, decreases in the labor force participation rates for both students and nonstudents contributed to the overall decline in teen labor force participation. Between 1994 and 2000, the July labor force participation rate for those enrolled in school dropped from 49.6 to 45.7 percent; for those not enrolled, the participation rate moved down from 69.2 to 68.4.

The rise in the July school enrollment rate and the decline in labor force participation were concentrated among 16- to 17-year-olds.

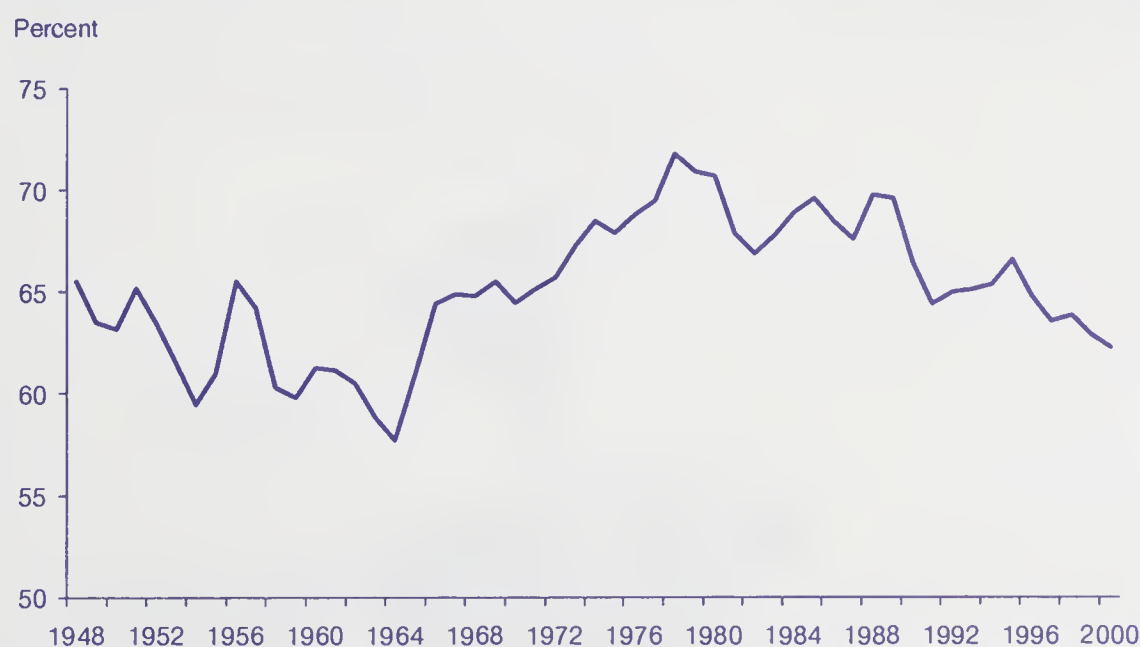
Between 1994 and 2000, their percentage enrolled in school in July increased as their labor force participation rate fell dramatically, from 57.0 to 51.2 percent. The percent of 18- to 19-year-olds enrolled in school in July also increased, although not as sharply, and their labor force participation rate did not change as markedly. (See table.)

To examine further the trends in teenage labor force participation, it helps to compare the movements in July with those in October, a month during which the vast majority of teenagers are enrolled in school. The October labor force participation rate for teens did not experience the normal expansionary growth over the 1994-2000 period, but did not really decline as did the July rate. High school students, however, did exhibit a declining proclivity for labor force activity, perhaps choosing to devote more attention to school. Their labor force participation rate decreased from 42.1 percent in October 1994 to 37.8 percent in 2000. For the relatively small group of teenagers not enrolled in school, the par-

ticipation rate increased—from 70.8 to 75.9 percent—perhaps (along with declining unemployment rates) a better indication of the underlying job market for young workers. Thus, the phenomena of increasing enrollment and declining labor force activity appear to be largely summer issues, although the lack of cyclical expansion in participation during the school months, and declines in participation among high school students in those months, suggests some underlying trend away from work.

IN SUMMARY, the increasing proportion of teens enrolled in school during the summer and a drop in students' labor force participation rates contributed to the overall decline in teen summer labor force participation during the recent expansion. Data for October of each year indicate that labor force participation among high school students also dropped during the school year, although nonstudents were increasingly likely to participate in the labor force. Together, these

Labor force participation rate for 16- to 19-year-olds, not seasonally adjusted, July 1948-2000



NOTE: Data from 1994 forward are not strictly comparable with earlier data because of the redesign of the Current Population Survey introduced in January 1994.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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facts suggest that, among teens, an increased emphasis was placed on school rather than work during the summer and the school year.

This summary was prepared by Katie Kirkland, an economist formerly with the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For additional information on teen labor force participation, contact the Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, DC 20212. Telephone: (202) 691-6378. E-mail address: cpsinfo@bls.gov. Information in this report will be made available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: (202) 691-5200; Federal Relay Service: 1-800-877-8339. This material is in the public domain and, with appropriate credit, may be reproduced without permission. ■

¹ In July of 2001 and 2002, participation rates of teens continued to fall. Because those declines are likely linked, at least in part, to the recessionary labor market, data for those years are not included in this analysis.

² Monthly, not seasonally adjusted data are available from the Current Population Survey (CPS) on the employment status of youths by school enrollment status. Data for 1994 and later years are not strictly comparable with data from 1993 and earlier years because of the introduction of a major redesign of the CPS questionnaire and collection methodology. In addition, in 1994, the wording of the question

Percent of 16- to 19-year-olds enrolled in school and labor force participation rate by age, not seasonally adjusted, July 1994 to 2000

(Percent)

Year	Percent enrolled in school			Labor force participation rate ¹		
	16 to 19 years	16 to 17 years	18 to 19 years	16 to 19 years	16 to 17 years	18 to 19 years
1994	19.5	21.4	17.5	65.4	57.0	74.0
1995	21.9	24.4	19.4	66.6	57.3	76.3
1996	22.0	24.8	19.0	64.8	55.9	74.3
1997	23.9	25.7	22.1	63.6	53.3	74.3
1998	24.8	27.8	21.8	63.9	53.3	74.8
1999	26.8	31.3	22.3	62.9	53.4	72.4
2000	27.0	31.3	22.7	62.3	51.2	73.3

¹Percent of the population that is in the labor force.

SOURCE: Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

on school enrollment status was changed.

The question was changed from asking whether, last week, persons were attending or enrolled in school to simply whether they were enrolled. This change appears to have created an overstatement of the number of persons enrolled in school in summer months for 1994 forward. Some respondents likely replied that they (or their children in the case of proxy respondents) were enrolled—that is, to return to school for the fall semester—even though they were not attending school in the reference week. (While the instructions to the interviewer indicate that a student on summer vacation would be treated as not enrolled, interviewers are not instructed to probe to make sure respondents are following that rule.) In July 1993, 13.9 percent of 16- to 19-year-olds in the CPS were enrolled in school in July, compared with 19.5 percent in July 1994, after the question had been reworded. Nevertheless, from 1994 to 2000, when the same question was asked each month, there was an increase in the percent of teens reported as enrolled in school in July, from 19.5 to 27.0 percent. Thus, while the school enrollment rate during the summer since 1994 might be overstated, the trend in summer attendance is likely to be reflected in the CPS data.

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Summary 02-07 September 2002

Twenty-first century moonlighters

In May 2001, 7.8 million persons worked multiple jobs in the United States, a figure representing 5.7 percent of all workers. Why did these persons choose to work more than one job? To answer this question, the May 2001 Current Population Survey (CPS) asked multiple jobholders: "What is the MAIN reason you worked at more than one job?" Respondents were asked to choose among the following response options: Meet expenses or pay off debt, earn extra money, build a business or get experience in a different job, enjoy the second job, or some other reason.

Results from the May 2001 supplement reveal that more than 1 in 3 moonlighters worked multiple jobs in order to earn extra money, a category that could include saving for the future or getting extra money to buy something special. An additional 27.8 percent moonlighted in order to meet expenses or pay off debt. Among the other common reasons for working multiple jobs, enjoyment of the second job was reported by 17.4 percent of moonlighters, and 4.6 percent wanted to build a business or get experience in a different job. (See table and chart.)

As mentioned above, multiple jobholders gave various reasons for their decision to trade in nonwork time for an additional job. These reasons varied depending on demographic characteristics. For example, young workers (aged 16 to 24) were much more likely to work more than one job in order to earn extra money (51.8 percent) than were persons aged 25 and older (32.6 percent). It stands to reason that younger workers, many of whom are not yet fully responsible for their own basic support, are likely to view their job(s) as providing "extra" money. The share of adults working multiple jobs in order to build a business or get experience in a different job, while relatively small to begin with, tended to decrease with age. Conversely, the share of workers who moonlighted because they enjoyed the second job tended to increase with age. For example, only 9.3 percent of young workers (aged 16 to 24) reported that they worked multiple jobs because they enjoyed the work on the second job, compared with 27.0 percent of older workers (aged 55 and older).

Hispanic moonlighters were about equally divided between working more than one job in order to meet expenses or pay off debt (40.9 percent) and wanting to earn extra money (38.3 percent). Among black multiple jobholders, nearly half reported that they held more than one job to earn extra money, with an additional one-third responding that they needed to meet expenses or pay off debt. Nearly 1 in 5 whites worked multiple jobs because they enjoyed the second job, more than double the share of blacks, and 7 percentage points higher than that of Hispanics. Nonetheless, more than 1 in 4 whites moonlighted in order to meet expenses or pay off debt.

Meeting expenses or paying off debt was the primary reason why widowed, divorced, or separated persons held more than one job, with 39.9 percent citing these reasons, compared with 24.3 percent of married (spouse present) multiple jobholders. Conversely, a greater share of married persons (20.4 percent) than of widowed, divorced, or separated persons (13.7 percent) worked multiple jobs because they enjoyed the work on the second job. Single (never married) persons were more likely to moonlight in order to earn extra money (43.0 percent) than were married multiple jobholders (32.4 percent).

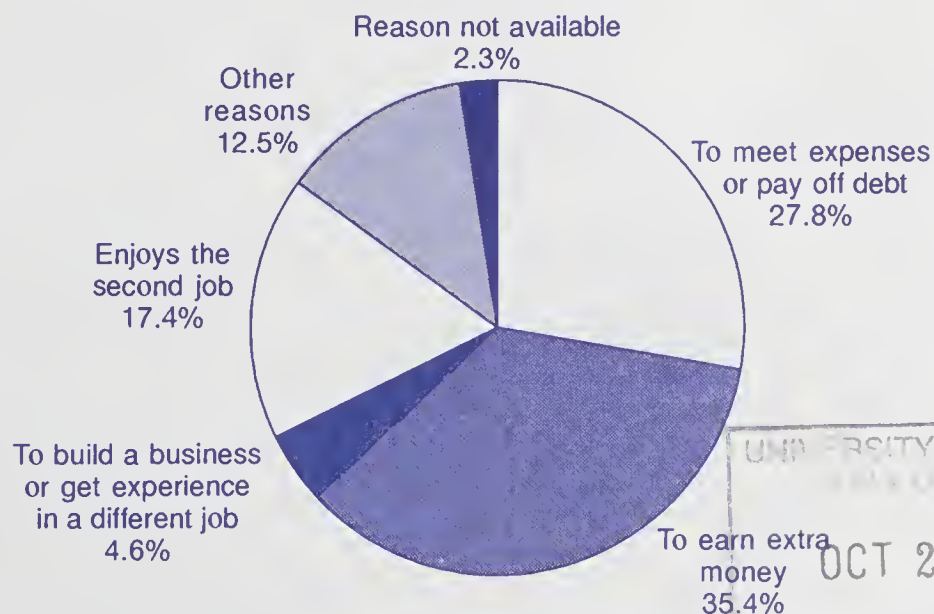
Reasons for holding more than one job also

varied among persons with different work schedules. For example, among those who worked two full-time jobs, 39.3 percent did so to meet expenses or pay off debt; this compares with 27.1 percent of persons with other schedules, such as those working full time on the primary job and part time on the secondary job. Among those who held two part-time jobs, 8.5 percent did so to build a business or get experience in a different job, more than double the share of moonlighters with other work schedules. Enjoyment of the second job was the reason given by 21.5 percent of persons for whom the hours varied on at least one job, about 5 percentage points higher than for workers with other schedules.

The overall number of multiple jobholders has declined since the last CPS study on main reason for multiple jobholding was conducted in May 1997. The percentage of workers reporting holding more than one job in order to meet expenses or pay off debt also declined; however, it is difficult to determine how much of this was due to changes made in the question design.¹

For additional information on reasons for multiple jobholding, contact Jennifer L. Hallmartel, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Bureau of Labor Statis-

Reasons for working more than one job, May 2001



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¹ In May 2001, the CPS question asked, "What is the MAIN reason you worked at more than one job?" The interviewer would then read the following list, from which the respondent could choose one: (1) meet expenses or pay off debt, (2) earn extra money, (3) build a business or get experience in a different job, (4) enjoy the second job, (5) some other reason. The same question was asked in May 1997; however, the interviewer would not read the response options. In-

stead, the interviewer would code responses into the most appropriate of the following categories: (1) to meet regular household expenses, (2) to pay off debts, (3) to save for the future, (4) to get experience in a different occupation or to build a business, (5) to help out a friend or relative, (6) to get extra money to buy something special, (7) enjoys the work on the second job, (8) changed jobs during the week, (9) other (specify).

Multiple jobholders by age, race, Hispanic origin, sex, marital status, work schedule, and reason for working more than one job, May 2001

Selected characteristics	Percent distribution by reason					Selected characteristics	Percent distribution by reason				
	To meet ex-penses or pay off debt	To earn extra money	To build a business or get experience in a different job	Enjoys the second job	Other reasons		To meet ex-penses or pay off debt	To earn extra money	To build a business or get experience in a different job	Enjoys the second job	Other reasons
Age and sex						Race and Hispanic origin					
Total, 16 years and older	27.8	35.4	4.6	17.4	12.5	White	27.1	33.7	5.1	18.6	13.1
16 to 24 years	23.0	51.8	7.3	9.3	7.3	Black	32.8	47.4	2.2	8.2	7.3
25 to 34 years	30.1	35.5	5.2	13.8	11.4	Hispanic	40.9	38.3	3.4	11.3	5.4
35 to 44 years	29.9	34.1	4.1	17.5	12.5	Marital status					
45 to 54 years	26.1	30.9	3.7	21.0	15.5	Single	27.2	43.0	6.5	13.2	7.3
55 years and older	26.9	26.5	3.1	27.0	14.7	Married, spouse present	24.3	32.4	4.2	20.4	16.3
Men, 16 years and older	26.6	35.7	4.2	17.6	14.0	Other marital status ¹	39.9	33.5	3.2	13.7	7.6
16 to 24 years	25.2	50.2	6.2	9.8	8.3	Women who maintain families	47.7	30.7	4.8	9.5	5.4
25 to 34 years	27.8	37.3	5.1	14.6	11.4	Men who maintain families	40.7	33.9	4.7	13.3	4.2
35 to 44 years	29.0	35.1	2.6	17.1	14.8	Work schedules					
45 to 54 years	24.4	31.5	4.7	22.1	15.6	Primary job full time, secondary job part time	29.5	36.1	3.0	17.6	11.8
55 years and older	23.8	26.9	3.1	24.0	20.2	Primary job full time, secondary job full time	39.3	36.2	3.6	9.3	10.8
Women, 16 years and older	29.0	35.0	5.1	17.1	10.8	Primary job part time, secondary job part time	23.7	36.3	8.5	14.7	13.7
16 to 24 years	21.2	53.1	8.3	8.9	6.4	Hours vary on primary or secondary job	24.4	33.2	4.8	21.5	13.4
25 to 34 years	32.8	33.4	5.4	12.8	11.5						
35 to 44 years	30.9	33.1	5.7	18.0	10.0						
45 to 54 years	28.1	30.2	2.6	19.6	15.3						
55 years and older	30.5	26.1	3.0	30.5	8.3						

¹ Includes persons widowed, divorced, and separated.

NOTE: Data on the number of multiple jobholders differ from the regularly published monthly data because of differences in the estimation procedures used to produce the data. Detail will not sum to 100 percent because cases in which reasons for multiple jobholding were not available are not presented. Detail for race and Hispanic-origin groups will not sum to totals because data for the "other races" group are not presented and Hispanics are included in both the white and black population groups.

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Washington, DC 20212-0001

Official Business
Penalty for Private Use, \$300
Address Service Requested

FIRST CLASS MAIL
Postage and Fees Paid
U.S. Department of Labor
Permit No. G-738